

A DISSERTATION ON
“AN AUDIT OF PATIENTS PRESENTING WITH TRAUMA
TO A TERTIARY CARE MEDICAL CENTRE”

Dissertation submitted to
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for the award of the degree
M.S., GENERAL SURGERY (BRANCH - I)



DEPARTMENT OF GENERAL SURGERY
THANJAVUR MEDICAL COLLEGE

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that this dissertation titled “**AN AUDIT OF PATIENTS PRESENTING WITH TRAUMA TO A TERTIARY CARE MEDICAL CENTRE**” is the bonafide original work of **Dr.M. PRADHEEP** in partial fulfilment of the requirements for M.S., Branch – I (General Surgery) examination of the Tamilnadu Dr.M.G.R. Medical University to be held in April-May 2018.

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DECLARATION

I, **Dr. M. PRADHEEP**, hereby solemnly declare that the dissertation titled “**AN AUDIT OF PATIENTS PRESENTING WITH TRAUMA TO A TERTIARY CARE MEDICAL CENTRE**” is a bonafide work done by me at Thanjavur medical College, Thanjavur during 2016-2017 under the guidance of **Prof. Dr. K.SATHYABAMA M.S.**, Thanjavur Medical College.

This dissertation is submitted to the Tamil Nadu Dr.M.G.R Medical University, Chennai towards the partial fulfilment of requirements for the award of M.S.Degree (Branch-I) in General Surgery.

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DATE :

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INTRODUCTION

Motor vehicle accidents (MVAs) is an issue of national concern, considering its magnitude, gravity and the consequent negative impacts on the economy, public health and the general welfare of the people. Motor vehicle accidents (MVA) is considered as a major public health problem in both developing and developed countries. World Health Statistics 2008 cited in Global Status Report on Road Safety states that MVAs in 2004 were the 9th leading cause of death and at current rates by 2030 are expected to be the 5th leading cause of death, overtaking diabetes and Human immunodeficiency virus infection/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome.

Road traffic crashes are a major cause of misery, disability, and death globally, with a disproportionate number occurring in developing countries. It has been predicted that by 2020, MVAs will rank as high as third among causes of disability adjusted life years lost.

Injuries related to MVAs has major contribution to the number of trauma admissions at Tertiary care centre, taking out a significant number of lives and resources. We need to know more about the numbers and types of injuries and about the circumstances in which these injuries occur. This information will indicate just how serious the injury problem is and where, exactly, preventive measures are most urgently needed.

Motor vehicle accidents have not always been considered a preventable health problem. In 1990, MVA ranked 9th in the most important factors determining population health and it is predicted to become the 3rd cause of mortality and disability by 2020. The reports also show that 50% of the deaths were 15-43 years old, who are the most effective population in a society's financial development. The high social and financial costs of MVA and its physical and mental aftermaths on people and societies are the major problem. This

challenge is more in developing countries, where MVA rate is increasing and its direct and indirect costs are more than the developed countries.

In its last report, World Health Organization (WHO) has expressed the need for more research on the epidemiologic pattern of MVA in developing countries to determine the dimensions of problem and identify those who are most susceptible to MVA and the associated fatalities, since no accurate estimation exists regarding these effects of MVA in these countries.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVE

- To evaluate the age and sex incidence of the involved patient population.
- To evaluate the different organ systems involved.
- To correlate the eventual mortality with the type of injury sustained.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All the patients admitted to our institution after Motor vehicle accidents who satisfy the inclusion criteria were considered for study. Significant injury refers to involvement of at least one body region among following – head injury, torso injury, facial injury, extremity injury and spinal injury.

The patients who are thought to be under the influence of alcohol were based on the clinical impression of the attending doctor. Injury patterns were identified using case sheets and Medico Legal Certificates (MLC) of the patients who seek medical care in hospital. Injuries were initially managed and treated by general surgeons and subsequently by corresponding super-speciality departments.

INCLUSION CRITERIA :

1. Patients who are admitted to Thanjavur Medical College Hospital following Road Traffic Accident.
2. Patients with significant injury following Road Traffic Accident.
3. Patients of both sexes and all age groups.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA:

1. Patients who were not willing for study.

INVESTIGATIONS DONE:

X rays

Ultra sonogram

Computed Tomography

Baseline investigations

- Complete hemogram
- Renal function tests
- ECG all leads

DATA COLLECTION METHODS:

- Clinical examination
- Radiological reports

COLLABORATING DEPARTMENTS:

- Department of orthopaedics
- Department of radiodiagnosis
- Department of neurosurgery
- Department of plastic surgery
- Department of cardiothoracic surgery

STUDY DESIGN: Prospective study

STUDY PERIOD: 01.10.2016 - 30.03.2017

STUDY PLACE: Thanjavur Medical College Hospital, Thanjavur

BENEFIT TO THE COMMUNITY:

- To study the burden of MVA to the society.
- To help in early detection of fatal injuries and subsequent management.
- To decrease the mortality and morbidity associated with MVA.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Trauma is recognised as a serious public health problem. In fact, it is the leading cause of death and disability in the first four decades of life and is the third most common cause of death overall. Millions of people are killed or disabled by injury each year. Hundreds of thousands who survive their injuries experience long-term or permanent disabilities, time lost from work or family responsibilities, costly medical expenses, profound change in lifestyle, pain and suffering, regardless of gender, race or economic status. An injury affects more than just the injured person; it affects everyone who is involved in the injured person's life. The importance of the modern epidemic of motor vehicle accidents (MVA) to the global epidemic of violent injury cannot be overstated. The great majority of injuries are not life- or limb-threatening. Here the challenge is not only to treat the minor injuries, but also, to differentiate between those injuries that have some important aspects and those that are genuinely straightforward. Understanding and assessing the nature of the problem usually hinges on diagnosing the injury. An injury may be found by careful physical examination or need special investigation before it is discovered.

Looking for the hidden injury when deduction has failed can follow two methods:

- the look everywhere approach
- the focused exclusion approach

THE LOOK EVERYWHERE APPROACH - One of the mainstays of trauma evaluation has been the secondary survey. The essence is that once the initial life-saving manoeuvres have been completed you look everywhere for further injury. This detailed examination may take place shortly after admission. As its name suggests, the look everywhere secondary survey comes later in the sequence of the ATLS approach.

The ATLS system has included a plain pelvic and a chest x-rays part of the primary survey. This may confirm a clinical diagnosis, but is also a screening tool to identify injuries that may progress to a clinical problem; the response to that injury can then be initiated earlier. The threshold for using more generalised investigations such as CT scanning, ultrasound, cardiac echo and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) to check for these covert injuries is progressively being lowered.

Some emergency departments now have CT scanners in their resuscitation rooms. A head-to-pelvis CT scan is being used to replace the early plain radiographs of the chest and the pelvis. A CT scan is more sensitive and specific and its use to identify injury before the clinical signs become obvious ascertain to improve patient care.

THE FOCUSED EXCLUSION APPROACH - Some important injuries or conditions are for some reason missed on a surprisingly regular basis. This suggests that a normal deductive approach is not always adequate. Classic examples are scaphoid fractures, perilunate dislocations, posterior dislocations of the shoulder and tarso-metatarsal dislocations. Therefore, if such injuries are suspected or possibly present they should be positively excluded by focused history, examination and investigation

STEPS IN THE ADVANCED TRAUMA LIFE SUPPORT (ATLS) PRINCIPLE

- Primary survey with simultaneous resuscitation: identify and treat life threatening events.
- Secondary survey: proceed to identify all other injuries.
- Definitive care: develop a definitive management plan.

Following major trauma, there is a well described ‘TRIMODAL DISTRIBUTION OF DEATH’.

The three ‘peaks’ as follows:

IMMEDIATE - 50 per cent of all deaths. These are probably not possible to save. They are usually the result of massive head injury or severe cardio-pulmonary insult.

EARLY - within the first few hours. These will result from a failure of oxygenation of tissue either because oxygen is not getting into the body (airway or breathing problem), or because the circulation has failed and so oxygen cannot be delivered to the tissues.

LATE - 20 per cent of deaths. Usually from multiple organ failure and sepsis, influenced by inadequate early resuscitation and care.

The ATLS principles are aimed primarily at the ‘early’ group of patients. They try to optimise the speed and accuracy of the initial assessment and management, and so reduce subsequent morbidity and mortality.

PRIMARY SURVEY –

The primary survey is the fundamental principles of the ATLS system, the ‘ABCDE’ of trauma care.

A - Airway with cervical spine protection

B - Breathing and ventilation

C - Circulation with haemorrhage control

D- Disability: neurological status

E- Exposure: completely undress the patient and assess for other injuries

SECONDARY SURVEY –

The purpose of the secondary survey is to identify all other injuries and perform a more thorough ‘head to toe’ examination. Examine each region of the body for signs of injury, bony instability and tenderness to palpation.

HEAD AND FACE - Evaluate the head for penetrating injuries and depressed fractures, and any evidence of bleeding or discharge from the ears suggestive of a basal skull fracture.

Check the face for maxillofacial fractures and ocular injury. Inspect the mouth, mandible, zygoma, nose and ears. Exclude midfacial injury and potential airway compromise.

NEUROLOGICAL - Examine the GCS regularly. Perform a full neurological examination if the patient’s condition allows. Any evidence of sensory and motor disturbance requires full spinal immobilisation and urgent review by the neurosurgeons or spinal orthopaedic surgeons with imaging as appropriate.

NECK - Inspect and palpate the cervical spine anteriorly and posteriorly for haematomas, crepitus, tenderness and evidence of steps on palpation. The spine is held immobilised until formally cleared clinically and radiographically.

CHEST - Review the primary survey and perform full palpation and auscultation of the chest wall. Palpate the entire chest wall including the clavicle, sternum and ribs.

ABDOMEN AND PELVIS - Inspect for distension, bruising or penetrating wounds. Inspect and palpate for tenderness and signs of peritonitis. Palpate the iliac crests for pain which might indicate pelvic instability, resulting from ring fractures. Inspect the perineum for evidence of ecchymosis or bleeding. A rectal examination is needed to assess tone, prostate level and to look for bleeding.

EXTREMITIES - It is often here that attention is diverted immediately when a dramatic injury to the limbs presents itself. It is important to note that, unless there is severe haemorrhage, the injury to the limb is not immediately life threatening and focus must be maintained on the primary survey and 'ABCDE' sequence. Obviously, deformed limbs should be manipulated into as near anatomical alignment as possible, remembering to document the distal neurovascular status before and after the intervention.

RE-EVALUATION -

It is an integral process in the initial assessment of major trauma and should not stop once the patient leaves the emergency room. Continuous monitoring is invaluable here, especially of the vital signs and urinary output.

HEAD INJURY–

Head injury accounts for 3–4 per cent of emergency department attendances. Road traffic accidents are the leading cause of head injury, for up to 50 per cent of cases. Most of these are classified as mild injuries, with approximately 20% classified as moderate to severe. Approximately 50% of the trauma deaths every year are caused by head injury. The social, medical, and economic implications are profound.

THE PRIMARY SURVEY IN HEAD INJURY

- Ensure adequate oxygenation and circulation.
- Check pupil size and response and Glasgow Coma Scores soon as possible.
- Check for focal neurological deficits before intubation if possible.

GLASGOW COMA SCORE –

EYE OPENING	Spontaneously	4
	To verbal command	3
	To painful stimulus	2
	Do not open	1
VERBAL RESPONSE	Normal oriented conversation	5
	Confused	4
	Inappropriate/words only	3
	Sounds only	2
	No sounds	1
	Intubated patient	T
MOTOR RESPONSE	Obeys commands	6
	Localises to pain	5
	Withdrawal/flexion	4
	Abnormal flexion	3
	Extension	2
	No response	1

Maximum score – 15/15

Minimum score – 3/15

GRADING OF HEAD INJURY –

Mild – 14 or 15 with loss of consciousness

Moderate – 9 to 13

Severe – 3 to 8

EXAMINATION OF THE HEAD (SECONDARY SURVEY)

- Look and feel over the whole skull and face for cuts, bruises and fractures.
- Check for fractured base of skull by looking for blood in the ears, nose or mouth.
- Check the cranial nerves.
- Check the eyes for movement and for damage to the orbit itself.

In moderate or severe traumatic brain injury (TBI), there is an associated cervical spine fracture in around 10 per cent of cases. Therefore, cervical spine injury must be presumed in the context of head injury until actively excluded. In a high energy mechanism, thoracic and lumbar spine injuries must also be excluded.

Severity of head injury is classified according to the Glasgow Coma Score, as it is the GCS – and in particular the motor score – that is the best predictor of neurological outcome.

EXTRADURAL HAEMATOMA:

Extradural haematoma is a neurosurgical emergency. It results from rupture of an artery, vein or venous sinus, in association with a skull fracture. Typically, it is damage to the middle meningeal artery under the thin temporal bone. A low energy injury mechanism, perhaps with brief loss of consciousness, is sufficient to start the extradural bleeding. The

patient may then present in the subsequent lucid interval with headache, but without any neurological deficit. At this stage, the increase in the intracranial volume is not yet causing a significant rise in intracranial pressure because compensation is occurring. However, once the limits of compensation have been reached after as long as some hours since the time of MVA rapid deterioration follows. There is contralateral hemiparesis, reduced conscious level and ipsilateral pupillary dilatation, the cardinal signs of brain compression and herniation. On CT, extradural haematomas appear as a lentiform (lens shaped or biconvex) hyper dense lesion between skull and brain, constrained by the adherence of the dura to the skull. Mass effect may be evident, with compression of surrounding brain and midline shift. Areas of mixed density suggest active bleeding. A skull fracture will usually be evident. Extradural haematoma requires immediate transfer to the most accessible neurosurgical facility, for immediate evacuation in deteriorating or comatose patients or those with large bleeds, and for close observation with serial imaging in all cases. Overall mortality is around 10–20 per cent, but is considerably lower in isolated extradural haematoma.



**CT BRAIN SHOWING RIGHT
TEMPORO-PARIETAL
EXTRADURAL HAEMORRHAGE**

ACUTE SUBDURAL HAEMATOMA:

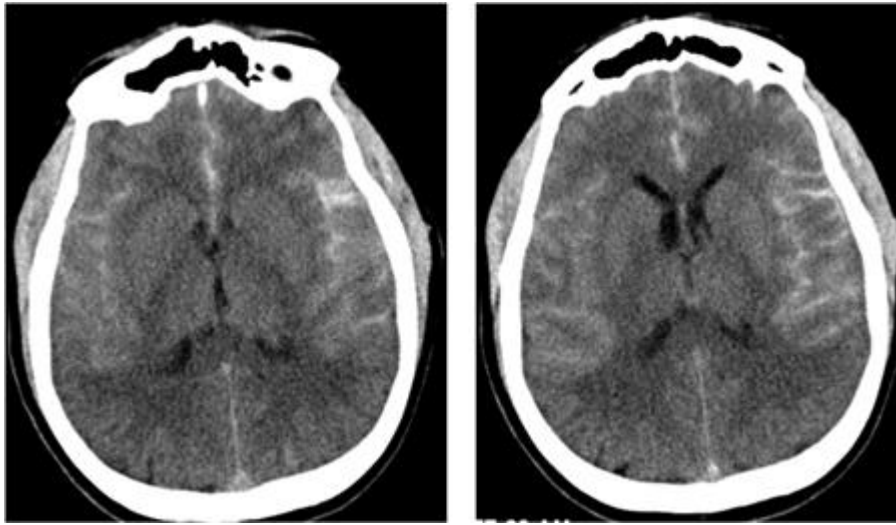
Acute subdural bleeding arises from rupture of cortical vessels. In contrast to extradural haematoma (and chronic subdural haematoma), acute subdural haematoma is usually associated with a high energy injury mechanism and significant primary brain injury. Conscious level is usually therefore impaired at presentation, but may deteriorate further as the haematoma expands. Since the dura is not adherent to the brain as it is to the skull, subdural blood is free to expand across the brain surface giving a diffuse concave appearance. Acute subdural bleeds of significant size or with significant associated midline shift require evacuation, and the cumulative mortality in this group is about 50 per cent. Smaller bleeds in neurologically stable patients may be managed conservatively, with ICP monitoring, in a neurosurgical unit



CT BRAIN SHOWING RIGHT FRONTO-TEMPOR-PARIETAL SUBDURAL HAEMORRHAGE

TRAUMATIC SUBARACHNOID HAEMORRHAGE:

Trauma is the most common cause of subarachnoid haemorrhage and this is managed conservatively. It is not usually associated with significant vasospasm, which characterises aneurysmal subarachnoid haemorrhage. The possibility of spontaneous subarachnoid haemorrhage actually leading to collapse and so causing a head injury needs to be borne in mind and formal or CT angiography may be required to exclude this.



CT BRAIN SHOWING BILATERAL TEMPORAL SUBARACHNOID HAEMORRHAGE

DIFFUSE AXONAL INJURY:

This is a form of primary brain injury, seen in the high energy accidents, and which usually renders the patient comatose. It is strictly a pathological diagnosis made at post-mortem, but haemorrhagic foci in the corpus callosum and dorsolateral rostral brainstem on CT may be suggestive, although the CT often appears normal.

The guidelines for computed tomography (CT) in the head injury according to the NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR HEALTH AND CLINICAL EXCELLENCE (NICE)

- GCS <13 at any point
- GCS 13 or 14 at 2 hours
- Focal neurological deficit
- Suspected open, depressed or basal skull fracture
- More than one episode of vomiting

- Any patient with a mild head injury over the age of 65 years or with a coagulopathy, for instance, warfarin use, should be scanned urgently
- Dangerous mechanism or injury or antegrade amnesia >30 minutes warrants CT within 8 hours.

NON-OPERATIVE MEASURES:

In addition to operative intervention, post injury care directed at limiting secondary injury to the brain is critical. The goal of resuscitation and management in patients with head injuries is to avoid hypotension (SBP of <90 mmHg) and hypoxia (partial pressure of arterial oxygen of <60 or arterial oxygen saturation of <90). Attention, therefore, is focused on maintaining cerebral perfusion rather than merely lowering ICP.

CHEST INJURY –

Thoracic injury accounts for 25 per cent of all severe injuries. In a further 25 percent, it may be a significant contributor to the subsequent death of the patient. In most of these patients, the cause of death is haemorrhage. Chest injuries are often life-threatening, either in their own right or in conjunction with other system injuries. About 80 percent of patients with chest injury can be managed nonoperatively. The key to a good outcome is early physiological resuscitation followed by a correct diagnosis.

INVESTIGATION -

Routine investigation in the emergency department of injury to the chest is based on clinical examination, supplemented by chest radiography. Ultrasound can be used to differentiate between contusion and the actual presence of blood. A chest tube can be a diagnostic procedure, as well as a therapeutic one, and the benefits of insertion often outweigh the risks.

The CT scan has become the principal and most reliable examination for major injury in thoracic trauma. Scanning with contrast allows for three-dimensional reconstruction of the chest and abdomen, as well as of the bony skeleton. In blunt chest trauma, the CT scan will allow the definition of fractures, as well as showing haematomas, pneumothoraxes and pulmonary contusion. CT scanning has replaced angiography as the diagnostic modality of choice for the assessment of the thoracic aorta.

THE ‘DEADLY DOZEN’ THREATS TO LIFE FROM CHEST INJURY.

IMMEDIATELY LIFE THREATENING

- Tension pneumothorax
- Pericardial tamponade

- Open pneumothorax
- Massive haemothorax
- Flail chest

POTENTIALLY LIFE THREATENING

- Aortic injuries
- Tracheobronchial injuries
- Myocardial contusion
- Rupture of diaphragm
- Oesophageal injuries
- Pulmonary contusion

Emergency thoracic surgery is an essential part of the armamentarium of any surgeon dealing with major trauma. A timely thoracotomy for the correct indications can be the key step in saving an injured patient's life.

INDICATIONS FOR THORACOTOMY INCLUDE THE NEED TO PERFORM:

- internal cardiac massage;
- control of haemorrhage from injury to the heart or lung;
- control of intrathoracic haemorrhage from other causes;
- control of massive air leak.

INITIAL EVALUATION -

The physical examination of the chest is extremely important in identification of life-threatening situations that necessitate immediate attention. These situations include tension pneumothorax, massive haemothorax, open pneumothorax, flail chest, and cardiac

tamponade.

Assessment of the chest begins with removal of all clothing and visual inspection of the anterior and posterior chest and axillae. Thorough inspection for lacerations, ecchymoses, open wounds, air bubbling from wounds, symmetry of chest rise, paradoxical motion of any portion of the chest, and use of accessory muscle for respiration should be performed. Pulse oximetry should be applied as soon as the patient arrives. The chest should be palpated for crepitus, tenderness, and instability of the sternum or ribs. Auscultation for presence and symmetry of breath sounds and dullness of cardiac or breath sounds is also performed. A chest x-ray should be performed as soon as is feasible for radiographic evaluation of the soft tissues, bones, lung parenchyma, and thoracic cavities. Throughout the assessment, high-flow oxygen should be administered to the patient. The chest x-ray is of the utmost importance in thoracic trauma; however, the life-threatening injuries mentioned previously preclude the necessity of a chest x-ray for diagnosis and should be identified clinically. In hemodynamically stable polytrauma cases, a chest computed tomographic (CT) scan with contrast (angiographic CT scan) may be useful in identification of injuries not seen on the initial chest-ray.

RIB FRACTURES -

Blunt chest wall trauma varies from an isolated rib fracture to bilateral multiple rib fractures from crush mechanisms of injury that lead to significant respiratory distress from pneumothorax, haemothorax marked pulmonary contusion. Mortality rates after blunt chest wall trauma ranges from 4% to 20%. Rib fractures are the most common injuries after blunt chest injuries, and ribs 4 through 10 are usually fractured. An isolated single rib fracture without lung involvement, pneumothorax, haemothorax is usually treated on an outpatient

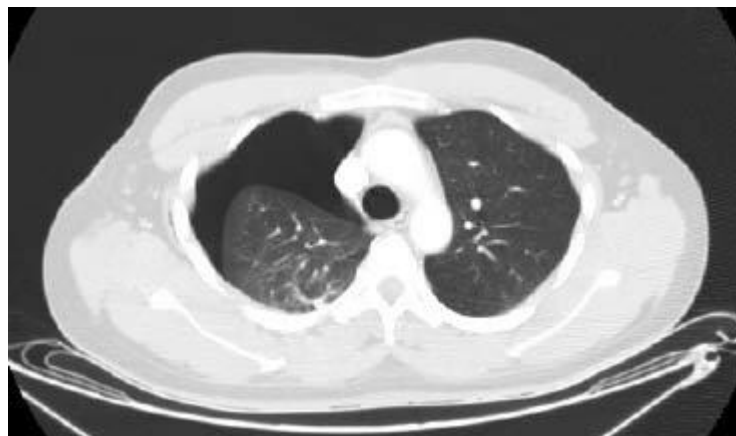
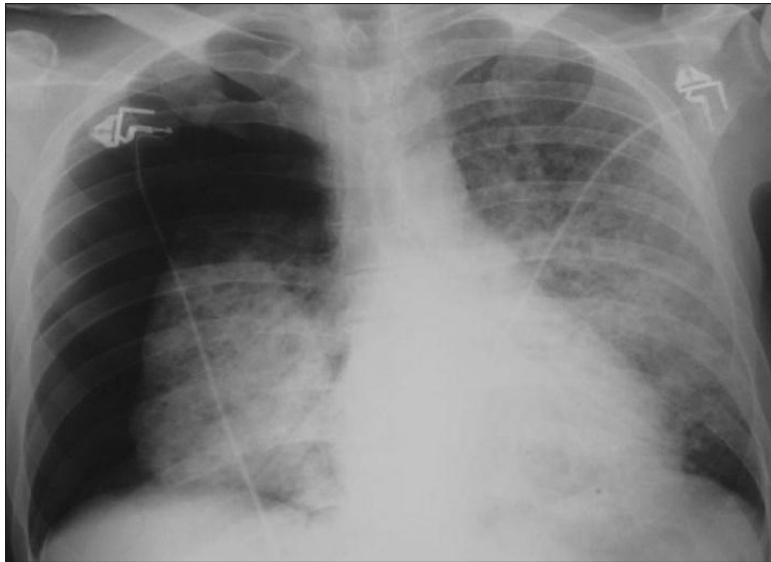
basis. However, the ideal management of patients with multiple rib fractures or significant chest wall trauma without life-threatening injuries is controversial. In the elderly population, decreased bone density, reduced chest wall compliance, and increased incidence of underlying parenchymal disease may cause rib fractures to lead to decreased ability to cough, reduced vital capacity, and increased incidence of infectious complications. The primary clinical manifestation after rib fracture is pain. Other clinical signs associated with rib fracture include tenderness to palpation and crepitus. Rib fractures are confirmed with a chest x-ray or with chest CT scan. Approximately 55% of rib fractures are missed on routine chest radiographs. Special views, including an oblique view, may increase sensitivity but are not commonly used during the initial evaluation of a trauma patient. CT scans are the most sensitive study for diagnosis of rib fractures. Multiple rib fractures are the hallmark of severe trauma from high-energy transfer. Patients with multiple rib fractures should undergo complete evaluation to rule out intrathoracic and abdominal injuries. Fractures of the lower ribs (9 to 12) are associated with increased incidence of solid organ injuries (liver and spleen), and fractures of the upper ribs (1 to 3), clavicle, or scapula are associated with major vascular injuries. Poor pain control significantly contributes to complications after rib fractures, such as atelectasis and pneumonia. Pain control is attempted initially with oral or intravenous (IV) analgesics. Intercostal nerve blocks with bupivacaine are effective for pain control; however, bupivacaine is not feasible for multiple fractures, and it requires frequent injections. Epidural analgesia is adequate for patients with multiple or bilateral fractures; it provides adequate pain control and appropriate pulmonary toilet, decreasing the number of complications.

PNEUMOTHORAX -

A pneumothorax occurs when air from an injured lung or airway is trapped within the pleural cavity, increasing the normal negative intrapleural pressure. It may be caused by penetrating or blunt mechanisms. After blunt trauma, pneumothorax is caused by rib fractures penetrating the lung parenchyma or by lung injuries without chest wall involvement. Deceleration injuries and sudden increases in intrathoracic pressure also may cause pneumothorax. Clinical findings suggestive of a pneumothorax include decreased breath sounds, hyper resonance to percussion, and decreased expansion of the affected lung during inspiration. Pneumothoraxes reclassified according to the volume of lung loss or collapse identified on chest x-ray or according to respiratory and systemic signs. In small pneumothorax, the volume loss is one third of the normal lung volume. In a large pneumothorax, the lung is completely collapsed, but no mediastinal shift or associated hypotension is found. Tension pneumothorax is the most rapidly life threatening of all breathing problems. It occurs when air continuously enters the thoracic cavity from the lung, airway, or atmosphere and cannot escape. The pressure causes collapse of the lungs and prevents oxygenation and ventilation on the ipsilateral side and eventually causes deviation of the mediastinum to the opposite side. This causes compression of the superior and inferior vena cava, decreasing preload to the heartland resulting in hypotension. Tension pneumothorax should be recognized immediately with signs of air hunger, hypoxia, tachypnea, hyperresonance, unilateral absence of breath sounds, deviation of the trachea away from the affected side, distended neck veins, hypotension, and tachycardia. Tension pneumothorax is diagnosed clinically and constitutes life-threatening emergency. Chest x-rays are not necessary to confirm the diagnosis, and delays to definitive treatment significantly increase the risk of circulatory collapse and cardiorespiratory arrest. If tension pneumothorax is suspected, emergent decompression must be performed.

Advanced Trauma Life Support (ATLS) recommends needle decompression with large-bore

needles or angio-catheters placed in the second intercostal space in the midclavicular line. If the needle is properly placed, a rush of air should be observed with an immediate improvement in vital signs, as the tension pneumothorax is converted to a simple pneumothorax. This procedure should then be followed by the placement of a chest tube for more permanent decompression of the affected hemithorax and drainage of any blood that may be associated with the tension pneumothorax.



OCCULT PNEUMOTHORAX -

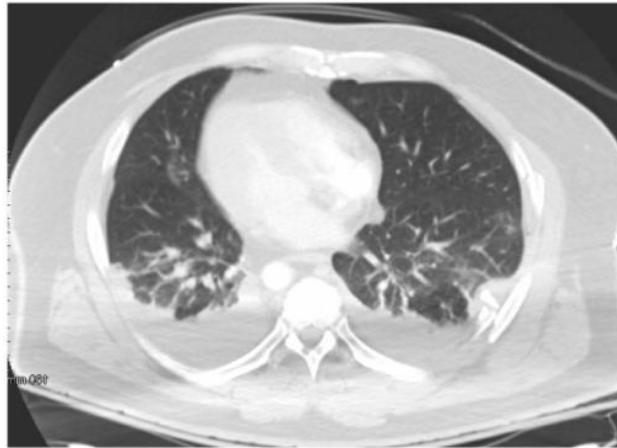
Occult pneumothorax is defined by the presence of a pneumothorax seen on CT scan but not seen on conventional chest x-ray. The incidence rate of occult pneumothorax in trauma patients vary from 2% to 10%. The critical issues related to occult pneumothoraxes are the question of clinical relevance; the identification of those with the potential to grow and cause problems, particularly in patients undergoing positive-pressure ventilation; and the question of pre-emptive treatment with tube thoracostomy. A recent multi-institutional prospective observational study sponsored by the American Association for the Surgery of Trauma (AAST) was carried out to elucidate those issues. The objective of the study was evaluation of management strategies of occult pneumothoraxes in an attempt to identify factors related to failure of observation to avoid unnecessary tube thoracostomy.

The authors analysed 588 cases of occult pneumothoraxes. Of those, 121 patients (21%) underwent immediate tube thoracostomy, and 448 (79%) were observed. Observation failure, defined by the need for tube thoracostomy after a period of observation, occurred in 27 (6%). The observation failure rate of patients undergoing positive-pressure ventilation was 14% (10 of 73). Increased hospital and ICU lengths of stay and ventilator days were observed in the failure of observation group. Univariate analysis identified size of the occult pneumothorax (7 mm), use of positive-pressure ventilation, progression of the occult pneumothorax (seen on subsequent chest-ray films), respiratory distress, and the presence of a hemithorax's independent factors associated with failure of observation. Multivariate regression analysis identified only progression of the occult pneumothorax and respiratory distress as significant predictors of failed observation. Because no patients with failed observation had tension pneumothorax develop or experienced any adverse events, the authors concluded that patients with occult pneumothorax can be carefully monitored and observed without tube thoracostomy.

HEMOTHORAX -

Blood may accumulate in the pleural cavity after blunt or penetrating injuries. Depending on the nature of the injury, bleeding may vary from minor to massive. Symptoms depend on the amount of blood accumulated in the pleural space. On physical examination, breath sounds may be decreased on the side of the injury. A chest x-ray obtained in the upright position may reveal accumulations of blood greater than 200 mL; however, a supine film may show a diffuse haziness or none at all. The pleural space can accumulate up to 3 L of blood. Hemothoraces are initially treated with chest tube placement (36Ftube); in approximately 85% of the cases, the bleeding stops as the lung is expanded as a result of the low pressure in the systemic circulation. A small number of cases have continued bleeding and need a thoracotomy. These cases are usually injuries in systemic arteries (intercostal arteries or internal mammary artery) or veins or major pulmonary vessels or are cardiac in origin. Massive haemothorax is usually the result of major pulmonary vascular injury or major arterial wounds. Massive haemothorax may present with tension physiology similar to tension pneumothorax. Treatment is immediate placement of a chest tube to the affected side. Blood loss of greater than 1500mL defines a massive haemothorax is an indication for operative exploration. Additional indications for thoracotomy include massive continuous air leak that may indicate massive parenchymal lung injury or injury to a major airway and blood loss of 200 mL/h for greater than 4 hours.





TUBE THORACOSTOMY

Tube thoracostomy is the most common procedure performed in the management of thoracic trauma. In fact, 85% of the patients with chest injuries need only clinical observation or tube thoracostomy. The chest tube should be placed in the midaxillary line in the fourth or fifth interspace at the level of the nipple in males and the inframammary fold in females. A small incision approximately 1.5 to 2 cm in length is made with a scalpel, and a clamp is used to bluntly dissect the subcutaneous tissue until the bony rib is felt. The clamp is then used to bluntly enter the thoracic cavity immediately over the top of the rib to avoid injury to the neurovascular bundle located beneath each rib. The most important step is entry of the thoracic cavity observed as rush of air or blood. The index finger should be inserted into the pleural space before tube placement to ensure that the pleural cavity has been entered and is free of adhesions and that intra abdominal organs have not herniated through the diaphragm. The tube should be advanced posteriorly and superiorly in the pleural cavity. In most adults, insertion of 10 to 12 cm of the tube should be adequate to ensure the last side port is within the chest cavity. The tube is then secured in place with suture, and the insertion site is dressed with an occlusive dressing. The end of the tube should then be connected to a closed drainage collection system with suction. A chest x-ray is taken after chest tube insertion to

confirm adequate placement and positioning. General criteria for chest tube removal include absence of air leak and less than 150 ml fluid drainage over a 24-hour period.

ABDOMINAL INJURY –

A complete and thorough physical examination of the entire body is essential in the management of abdominal injury. The components of the physical examination should include careful inspection, palpation, and auscultation. Palpation enables the examiner to elicit abdominal tenderness or frank peritoneal signs and to detect abdominal distension and rigidity. Auscultation is also an important component of the physical examination. It can help determine diminished or absent bowel sounds that could be suggestive of evolving peritonitis. Also, auscultation could detect trauma-induced bruit, suggestive of a vascular injury. The examiner has to be keenly aware of situations in which the abdominal examination is unreliable because of possible spinal cord injury or a patient altered mental state. The abdomen is notorious for hiding its secrets: occult injuries.

Access to an extensive diagnostic armamentarium is imperative in the optimal management of these injuries. The mainstay diagnostic modality for evaluation of blunt abdominal trauma is CT scan. Although CT scan is beginning to have a more pivotal role in the assessment of penetrating abdominal injuries, there are diagnostic options strongly advocated by some for abdominal stab wounds. Local wound exploration, for example, has the advantage of allowing the patient to be discharged from the trauma ward or emergency department if surgical exploration of the wound fails to show penetration of the posterior fascia and peritoneum. However, if the patient has to go to the operating room for other injuries, the local wound exploration should be done in the surgical suite that has better lighting and a more sterile environment. A positive finding during local wound exploration dictates a formal laparotomy or laparoscopy. In the patient who has an evaluable abdomen, serial abdominal examinations are an acceptable alternative to local wound exploration, to determine the need for operative intervention. Plain radiography

(abdomen/pelvis/chest) can be pivotal. The presence of free air might be confirmed with plain radiography. The diagnostic peritoneal lavage (DPL) developed by David Root in 1965 was a major advance in the care of the hemodynamically labile case of blunt trauma. With the advent of FAST and rapid CT scan, DPL has very limited utility. Diagnostic peritoneal lavage has never had a broad appeal in the diagnostic evaluation of penetrating abdominal wounds. The reported sensitivity and specificity of DPL for abdominal stab wounds are 59% to 96% and 78% to 98%, respectively. Also, DPL is a poor diagnostic modality for detection of diaphragmatic and retroperitoneal injuries.

Diagnostic imaging has had the greatest impact in changing the face of trauma management, with CT scan taking the lead in this area. Its ubiquitous presence in the management of blunt abdominal trauma is well established. As underscored previously, it is becoming an important diagnostic study in the evaluation of penetrating abdominal injuries. In addition to its excellent sensitivity in detection of pneumoperitoneum, free fluid, and abdominal wall/peritoneal penetration, CT scan is helpful in identification of the tract of the penetrating agent. Hauser and colleagues recommended the use of triple-contrast CT scan in the assessment of penetrating back and flank injuries. However, two major limitations of CT scan still remain: detection of an intestinal perforation and finding of a diaphragmatic injury. Unless the injury is confined to the solid organ of the abdomen, such as the liver or spleen, the matrix of intestinal gas patterns makes detection of penetrating injuries difficult. Kristensen, Beeman, and Kuhl were one of the first teams to introduce the role of ultrasound scan as part of the diagnostic armamentarium in trauma management. Kimura and Otsuka endorsed use of ultrasound scan in the emergency room for evaluation of hemoperitoneum. FAST does not have the same broad application in the evaluation of penetrating trauma as it does in blunt trauma assessment. Rockco, Ochsner, Schmidt, and associates reported on the expanded role of ultrasounds can as the “primary adjuvant modality” for the injured patient

assessment. Rosch also reported that FAST examination was the most accurate for detection of fluid within the pericardial sac. Such finding is confirmatory for a cardiac injury and possible cardiac tamponade, given a mechanism of injury that could result in an injury to the heart. As a diagnostic modality, laparoscopy is not a new innovation. Other specialists have used this operative intervention for several decades. However, it was formally introduced as a possible diagnostic procedure of choice for specific torso wounds when Viator and colleagues did a critical evaluation of laparoscopy on penetrating abdominal trauma. Fabian and associates also reported on the efficacy of diagnostic laparoscopy in a prospective analysis. No conventional diagnostic tool can conclusively rule out a diaphragmatic laceration or rent, so diagnostic laparoscopy becomes the study of choice for penetrating thoraco-abdominal injuries, particularly left thoraco-abdominal wounds.

EXPLORATORY LAPAROTOMY IN TRAUMA -

ABSOLUTE INDICATIONS:

- A. Peritonitis
- B. Evisceration
- C. Impaled object
- D. Hemodynamic instability (documented or suspected intra-abdominal source)
- E. Associated bleeding from natural orifice

Abdominal exploration for trauma has basically four imperatives:

- (1) haemorrhage control
- (2) contamination control
- (3) identification of the specific injury
- (4) repair or reconstruction.

Exploration is initiated with a midline vertical incision that should extend from the xiphoid to the symphysis pubis for optimal exposure. The first priority on entering the abdomen is control of exsanguinating haemorrhage. Such control can usually be achieved with direct control of the lacerated site or with proximal vascular control. After major haemorrhage is controlled, blood and blood clots are removed. Abdominal packs (radiologically labelled) are used to tamponade any bleeding and allow for identification of any injury bleeding. The preferred approach to pack the liver is to divide the falciform ligament and retract the anterior abdominal wall. This allows manual placement of the packs above the liver. Abdominal packs should also be placed below the liver. This arrangement of the packs on the liver creates compressive tamponade effect. After manual evisceration of the small bowel out of the cavity, packs should be placed on the remaining three quadrants, with care taken to avoid an iatrogenic injury to the spleen. During the packing phase, after ongoing haemorrhage has been controlled, the surgeon should communicate with the anaesthesia team that major haemorrhage has been controlled and that this is an optimal time to establish resuscitative advantage with fluid, blood, or blood product administration. The next priority should be control or containment of gross contamination. This begins with the removal of the packs from each quadrant, one quadrant at a time. Packs should be removed from the quadrants that are least suspected as the source for blood loss, followed by removal of the packs from the final quadrant, the one that is believed to be the area of concern.

After control of major haemorrhage has been achieved, any evidence of gross contamination must be addressed immediately. Obvious leakage from intestinal injury can be initially controlled with clamps (e.g., Babcock clamp), staples, or sutures. The entire abdominal gastrointestinal tract needs to be inspected, including the mesenteric and antimesenteric border of the small and large bowel, along with the entire mesentery. Rents in the diaphragm should also be closed to prevent contamination of the thoracic cavity. Further identification of

any and all intra-abdominal injuries should be initiated. Depending on the mechanism of injury, a thorough and meticulous abdominal exploration should be performed, including entering the lesser sac to better inspect the pancreas and the associated vasculature.

In addition, mobilization of the C-loop of the duodenum (Kocher's manoeuvre) might be necessary, along with medial rotation of the left or right colon for exposure of vital retroperitoneal structures.

The final component of a trauma laparotomy is definitive repair, if possible, of specific injuries. The status of the patient dictates whether each of the components of a trauma laparotomy can be achieved at the index operation. A staged celiotomy ("damage control" laparotomy) might be necessary if the patient becomes acidotic, hypothermic, coagulopathic, or hemodynamically compromised.

DIAPHRAGMATIC INJURY –

In the acute setting, diaphragmatic injuries are preferentially repaired primarily in a two-layer fashion, with a heavy nonabsorbable suture. Although the implications are infrequent, a nonabsorbable mesh can be incorporated in the diaphragmatic closure where there is significant tissue destruction, which usually occurs in blunt trauma. In the unlikely event of a gross contamination, endogenous tissue can be used for a definitive repair. Such tissue includes a latissimus dorsi flap, tensor fascia lata, or omentum. Overall, the expected outcomes for diaphragmatic injuries are good. Mortality and significant morbidity are related to associated organ injuries.

DIAGNOSIS	TREATMENT	OUTCOMES
Physical examination <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chest pain and shortness of breath • Scaphoid abdomen • Bowel sounds on auscultation of the hemithorax Plain radiography <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hollow viscus noted in the left hemithorax Nasogastric tube in the left hemithorax FAST examination <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unreliable DPL <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inconclusive; high false-negative CT scan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inconclusive Laparoscopy, the diagnostic modality of choice	Preoperative antibiotics Primary closure is the preferred definitive management With documentation of a diaphragmatic rent (laceration), exploratory laparotomy is necessary	Associated injuries dictate morbidity and mortality

LIVER INJURY -

Management of traumatic liver injuries begins with the arrival of the patient to the trauma ward. Advanced Trauma Life Support principles remain the foundation of care and will not be reiterated here. For critically injured patients, early efforts should be focused on avoiding the deadly triad of hypothermia, acidosis, and coagulopathy. Resuscitation should quickly transition to blood products in a 1-to-1 ratio, with active warming of the patient. A focused assessment with sonography for trauma (FAST) should occur early in the evaluation of the patient. FAST exam is notoriously unreliable for hemoperitoneum less than 300 to 600 cc and may be confounded by additional factors, including body habitus of the patient, operator skill, and the presence of associated injuries such as subcutaneous emphysema or pelvic fracture. A positive exam is a valuable piece of information which, when combined

with the hemodynamic status of the patient, is instrumental in the decision making for or against operative exploration.

Computed tomographic (CT) scan may also play an invaluable role in patient assessment. Intravenous contrast is, of course, required to achieve maximum benefit from the exam. CT allows quantification of the degree of hepatic trauma. Lacerations may be categorized according to their severity grade. Though potentially all grades of liver injury may be candidates for nonoperative management (excluding grade VI), multiple studies have demonstrated that nonoperative management fails more frequently with increasing severity of liver injury. Perhaps up to two thirds of grade IV and V liver injuries will ultimately fail observation. Further, CT delineates the presence of pseudoaneurysm within the parenchyma of the liver, hemoperitoneum, and associated injuries.



The most important consideration in observational management of blunt hepatic injuries is that this modality can ultimately be more labour-intensive than surgical exploration. The patient must be admitted to a monitored setting so that any deterioration in hemodynamic status is immediately detected. Serial haemoglobin and haematocrit studies should be done

to assess for ongoing bleeding. Serial lactate levels, and the evaluation of base deficit, are also, useful in trending the success of the resuscitation. Finally, it is mandatory for a surgeon to perform serial abdominal exams over the first 24 hours. Fortunately, most patients do well following non-operative management.

INTERVENTIONAL RADIOLOGY IN LIVER INJURY:

The scope and availability of interventional radiology (IR) has increased exponentially over the last 10 to 15 years. IR has been a key player in the growing success of non-operative management of traumatic spleen injuries. The applicability of IR to hepatic trauma is somewhat more limited. The persistence of a pseudoaneurysm in the hepatic parenchyma may benefit from angioembolization. IR is also superior to evaluate patients who develop haemobilia with upper gastrointestinal bleeding following hepatic trauma. Access to IR should not be considered a crutch or a method to avoid operative intervention. As noted, for unstable patients with high-grade liver injuries, the appropriate setting for evaluation and management is the operative, not IR, suite. Mobilization of IR resources, even in the most responsive centres, typically takes more than 1 hour—time that bleeding patients may not be able to tolerate. It is also important to remember that IR suites are often remote from trauma care and intensive care unit (ICU) areas of the hospital and cannot provide the monitoring and resuscitative capabilities over the necessary 1 to 2 hours that these patients require. Further, for higher-grade liver injuries, even a successful embolization will not address the potential morbidity of a bile leak, thus necessitating a return trip to IR for an alternate percutaneous drain. Undoubtedly, avoidance of a laparotomy is beneficial for some patients. However, all these factors must be taken into consideration when opting for IR. While hepatic trauma is the most common intra-abdominal injury, the need for operative therapy is less common than in the past. Decision for surgical therapy rests upon mechanism

of injury, patient status, and concern for associated injuries. Upon laparotomy, compression via packing is frequently all that is required for control haemorrhage.

SPLENIC INJURY –

The spleen is the most commonly injured organ in blunt abdominal trauma. The management of splenic injury has fluctuated over the past century from observation and expectant management in the early twentieth century to primarily operative management for all injuries, and now to the current practice of selective nonoperative management (NOM). The shift in treatment is a result of our changing technology and understanding of the spleen's role in immunologic function demonstrated in a publication by Morris and Bullock in 1919. The reported rate of post splenectomy overwhelming sepsis varies depending on the age at splenectomy and indications, with the highest risk in very young children and in patients undergoing splenectomy for hematologic disorders. Although the rate of sepsis after splenectomy is low, it is a lifelong risk for these patients. This knowledge led to an increased emphasis on splenic preservation. Initially attempted in children, comfort grew with NOM of splenic injury in adults as computed tomography (CT) became more widely available and with the realization that negative laparotomies carry significant morbidity. As angioembolization techniques become more refined, it is increasingly used as an adjunct to NOM, with improvement in NOM success.

DIAGNOSIS OF SPLENIC INJURY:

The initial management of all trauma patients should follow the guidelines of the American College of Surgeons Advanced Trauma Life Support. Trauma patients often have multiple confounding injuries that make physical examination unreliable. Therefore, the diagnosis of splenic injury relies on a high index of suspicion. Factors that should increase the index of

suspicion include hypotension, abdominal ecchymosis, abdominal pain or tenderness, presence of lower left rib fractures, and presence of pelvic fractures. It is important to point out that the presence of acute hemoperitoneum does not always lead to abdominal pain and tenderness, especially in the absence of clot lysis. Referred left shoulder pain (Kehr sign) is not reliably present, but even if present, it is often confounded by multiple injuries. Diagnostic and management decisions in patients with blunt splenic injury rely heavily on the presence or absence of hemodynamic stability and the response to resuscitation. During the initial assessment, blood should be drawn for laboratory testing, including haemoglobin, electrolytes, markers of metabolic stress (base deficit or lactate), coagulation profile, and blood typing. Intravenous access should be obtained for resuscitation and potential intravenous contrast administration. Hypotensive, patient who does not respond to fluid resuscitation or who only transiently responds to fluid administration should undergo a focused assessment with sonography for trauma (FAST) examination. A positive FAST examination indicates presence of peritoneal fluid and, in the case of a trauma patient, hemoperitoneum until proven otherwise. An emergency laparotomy is indicated in these patients. For patients who are unstable and have a negative FAST examination, intra-abdominal haemorrhage is not reliably excluded. FAST may be repeated in 15 to 30 minutes or a diagnostic peritoneal aspirate (DPA) or lavage (DPL) should be considered as the next step to rule out intra-abdominal haemorrhage. Alternative causes of haemorrhagic shock, such as thoracic injuries, pelvic injuries, external blood loss, or other types of shock, should be considered. For patients without a clear source of haemorrhage and who remain unstable despite resuscitation, immediate laparotomy should be considered. The FAST examination evaluates three areas of the abdomen for presence of intra-abdominal fluid: the hepatorenal fossa (Morrison's pouch), the lienorenal fossa, and the area around the bladder. A fourth view evaluates the pericardium for pericardial fluid.

The presence of fluid in any of these locations indicates a positive examination. Like other sonographic studies, the accuracy of FAST is operator dependent and limited by the patient's body habitus and presence of subcutaneous emphysema. FAST only allows determination of the presence of fluid within the abdominal cavity. It does not provide the source of the fluid or evaluation of the retroperitoneum. The reported sensitivity of FAST varies.

Generally, FAST has a sensitivity of 80% and specificity of 96%; however, at some large trauma institutions, the sensitivity may be as low as 50%. The false negative rate for FAST is higher in the setting of pelvic trauma, thoracolumbar spine fracture, haematuria, and rib fractures. When FAST is negative, the suspicion for intra-abdominal haemorrhage remains high, and the patient remains too unstable to be safely taken to the CT scanner, DPA may quickly provide an answer. It is the aspiration portion of the diagnostic peritoneal lavage without the lavage. When performed percutaneously, DPA is rapid and safe, and it does not have the high sensitivity of DPL. In a small prospective, observational trial, DPA had a sensitivity of 89% and a specificity of 100%.

For patients deemed hemodynamically stable, intravenous contrast-enhanced CT scan of the abdomen and pelvis is the study of choice for diagnosis of splenic injury. It allows for the grading of splenic injuries as developed by the American Association of the Surgery of Trauma. When a single-phase CT scan identifies contrast extravasation outside the splenic parenchyma, it usually indicates active splenic haemorrhage, whereas a focal accumulation of contrast within the parenchyma is often a contained vascular injury.

Contrast extravasation or "blush" has been used in the past to predict failure of NOM, guide selection for angioembolization, or even laparotomy. With the introduction of multidetector row CT systems in 1998, CT scanning is more rapid and has better spatial resolution, which has led to a greater sensitivity in detecting "blush." However, with the greater sensitivity, it is not unusual to find no active bleeding on angiography in patients identified with a contrast

“blush” on CT scan. Only 5% to 7% of all patients with blunt splenic injury have been found to have extravasation of contrast requiring angioembolization.



NON-OPERATIVE MANAGEMENT (NOM):

Selective nonoperative management is the standard of care for the hemodynamically stable patient with a blunt splenic injury in the absence of peritonitis. NOM should only be considered in environments that have the capability of monitoring and providing serial clinical exams and that have an operating room available for emergent laparotomy. Original exclusions for NOM in adults suggested that a high grade of injury, head trauma, quantity of hemoperitoneum, age greater than 55, contrast “blush,” and a large number of associated injuries precluded the ability to offer NOM. However, more recent literature has shown that the severity of splenic injury (by either grade or amount of hemoperitoneum), age greater than 55, neurologic injury, presence of contrast “blush,” and associated injuries should no longer be considered as absolute contraindications to NOM. Although found in only 0.3% of all blunt trauma admissions, hollow viscus injury as suggested by peritonitis, increasing

abdominal pain, or suspicion for hollow viscus injury mandates exploration.

Angiography and embolization are controversial adjuncts to NOM. First described by Sclafani in 1996, embolization allows an improved splenic salvage rate, especially for grades III to V. Its success and acceptance most likely lies on the availability and skill of the interventionalist. Indications for angiography with embolization in blunt splenic trauma include contrast “blush” on CT with evidence of ongoing haemorrhage, pseudoaneurysm, AAST grades IV and V, moderate hemoperitoneum, or clinical evidence of continued haemorrhage.

Multiple studies have shown improved success of NOM with its use. A NOM failure rate of 13% to 15% dropped to as low as 2% with embolization. There is concern that the small increase in splenic salvage rate is not worth the 19% risk of major complications and 23% risk of minor complications reported in early studies. Major, potentially life-threatening complications include continued haemorrhage, total splenic infarction, splenic abscess, contrast-induced nephropathy, pancreatitis, and pneumonia. Minor, non-life-threatening complications include fever, pleural effusion, partial splenic infarction, pain, coil migration, and puncture site injuries. Bleeding is the most common complication and has been reported in 5% to 24% of those undergoing embolization. Minor complications such as fever are seen in over 50% of patients undergoing embolization. Recent studies have shown that splenic embolization does not impact immune function.

Roughly 85% of patients with blunt splenic injury are managed nonoperatively with over a 90% success rate. Patients with high grade injury, large hemoperitoneum, vascular blush, pseudoaneurysm, and arteriovenous fistula are all at high risk of failure of NOM.

Velmahos and colleagues found that of 40% of patients with grade IV splenic injuries treated nonoperatively, 65.5% were successful. Sixteen percent of patients with grade V injuries were treated nonoperatively, and 40% were successful. Of those patients who do fail,

approximately 75% will fail within 48 hours of injury, 88% within 5 days, and 93% within 1 week of injury. In a review of a state wide discharge database, the 180-day risk of splenectomy following NOM and discharge home was 1.4%. Patients must be given specific discharge instructions about what symptoms may indicate a need for rapid return to the hospital. As resources have become more limited, recent studies have attempted to address the optimal care of the patient with blunt splenic injury without sacrificing safety. A retrospective study found early mobilization did not alter the risk of delayed hemorrhage and that bed rest was unnecessary. Recently published protocols suggest that grade I splenic injuries can be discharged as early as 1 to 2 days after injury if their haemoglobin is stable and vital signs remain normal. Grade II and higher injuries differ between published protocols. Most will discharge grade II injuries when the haemoglobin is stable and vital signs are normal. Grade III injuries and above are admitted to the ICU and had a minimum overall length of stay of at least 3 days. Repeat imaging in patients managed nonoperatively is controversial. Most repeat CT scans did not change patient management. An Eastern Association for the Surgery of Trauma survey found that only 14.5% of surveyed surgeons routinely obtain follow-up CT scans. Those physicians who routinely reimagine splenic injuries with CT scans and angioembolize as indicated believe that their aggressive approach greatly contributes to their high NOM success rate. Currently, there is not enough evidence to recommend routine follow-up CT scans.

Clinical judgment is the predominant factor in determining a return to activity in splenic injuries treated nonoperatively. Restrictions may be recommended for less than 6 weeks for grades I and II injuries and longer than 6 months for grades IV and V injuries.

RENAL INJURY –

The kidney is the most common genitourinary organ injured from external trauma, occurring in 1% to 5% of all injuries. The vast majority of kidney injuries can be successfully managed nonoperatively. Blunt traumas are more frequent than penetrating (around an 80:20). An estimated 2% of blunt injuries require exploration as opposed to over 50% of penetrating injuries. Similar to other solid organ injuries such as spleen and liver, advances in staging techniques (computed tomographic scan) have helped promote nonoperative management of renal injuries. Nevertheless, certain severely injured kidneys require exploration and reconstruction or, rarely, removal. Advances in embolization techniques have produced a useful adjunct treatment modality for renal trauma. Ultimately, the objective of managing these patients is to stem life-threatening bleeding while retaining enough nephron mass to avoid end-stage renal disease.

INITIAL EVALUATION –

The initial evaluation begins with the American College of Surgeons Acute Life Support Program algorithm of airway, breathing, circulation (external bleeding control), disability (neurologic status), and exposure (undress)/environment (temperature control). Subsequently, one should perform a history and physical examination, including blood pressure measurements to assess for shock (systolic blood pressure [SBP] <90 mmHg) and an examination for gross or microscopic haematuria. Microhaematuria is commonly defined as greater than three red blood cells per high-powered field on urine microscopy. Haematuria is a common sign of penetrating and blunt trauma, but the presence and degree of haematuria do not correlate with injury location and severity. This is particularly true for penetrating injuries where no haematuria may be present. The first void should be observed and analysed because

haematuria may clear quickly in the setting of aggressive fluid resuscitation. Haematuria helps guide whether imaging is needed.

Signs of renal injury on physical exam include flank ecchymoses, rib fractures, and transverse spinal process fractures. Minor trauma can cause significant damage to congenitally abnormal kidneys such as horseshoe or pelvic kidneys that are less protected from external trauma.

IMAGING STUDIES -



COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY:

Contrast enhanced computed tomographic (CT) scan with additional 10-minute delay scans is the gold standard imaging modality to stage the stable renal trauma patient and is both sensitive and specific for renal injuries. Expert opinion contends that no delays are required if the kidneys are uninjured and no perinephric, retroperitoneal pelvic or peri vesical fluid is present. CT helps to delineate concurrent abdominal solid organ and vascular injuries. With CT imaging, one can determine the size and location of perinephric hematomas, the degree of parenchymal laceration, collecting system injuries, differential contrast uptake and excretion

indicative of arterial injury or obstruction, a cortical rim sign indicating an arterial injury, and the degree of devitalized tissue. A renal vein injury can be subtle and marked by a hematoma medial to the renal artery and vein, while medial arterial contrast excretion represents a major arterial injury. Medial urinary contrast excretion may indicate major tear in the ureteropelvic junction, while this finding teamed with a lack of distal contrast excretion suggests ureteropelvic junction avulsion.

ULTRASONOGRAPHY:

While ultrasound (US) is a widely used imaging tool in the assessment of the abdominal trauma patient, it is not an effective modality to image acute kidney injuries. The kidney is bound by Gerota's fascia, and unless there are tears in the fascia, retroperitoneal bleeding will not be visualized. Ultrasound cannot reliably differentiate urine and blood. US can provide rapid, inexpensive, and non-invasive imaging of the abdomen. The focused assessment with sonography for trauma (FAST) is frequently used to identify intra-abdominal fluid and abdominal injuries.

INTRAVENOUS PYELOGRAM:

While CT scan has replaced intravenous pyelogram (IVP) as the imaging modality of choice for the traumatized urinary system IVP still plays a role in genitourinary trauma staging. In patients directly taken to the operating suite without CT staging of their kidney or ureteral injury, a one-shot IVP can help indicate the presence of a contralateral functioning kidney and indicate possible collecting system or ureteral injury. An IVP may demonstrate an abnormal renal outline, loss of the psoas margin, or displacement of the bowel or ureter suggestive of a hematoma. Patients found to have a solitary functioning kidney require every

attempt possible to save the kidney, as even a portion of a solitary kidney can keep someone off dialysis. The one-shot IVP is performed by administering 2 mL/kg body weight of contrast medium followed by a plain film x-ray of the kidneys, ureters, and bladder (KUB) 10 minutes later. It can only be employed in normotensive patients, as the timing of imaging in hypotensive patients is difficult when the kidneys are poorly perfused.

ANGIOGRAPHY:

Angiography and subsequent super-selective embolization therapy for renal trauma have evolved and have a place in the treatment armamentarium of renal trauma patients. Super-selective coil embolization provides an effective and minimally invasive means to stop bleeding. Given that the majority of the renal injuries can be managed conservatively, care should be taken to avoid needless embolizations. The kidney is an end arterial organ that lacks significant collateral arterial blood supply, and as such, embolization will cause nephron death in addition to causing bleeding cessation

NONOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT -

The vast majority of renal injuries can be managed nonoperatively. Improvements in the reliability of staging imaging has resulted in increased nonoperative management. In addition, as surgeons have increasingly managed other solid organ injuries such as spleen and liver nonoperatively, there has been a rise in the nonoperative management of kidney injuries. After appropriate staging, patients are typically managed with bedrest, hemodynamic monitoring, and serial haematocrits. Some evidence suggests that bed rest can be avoided unless haematuria increases or resumes after ambulation. Transfusions should be given as

needed, but when more than 6 units are needed or hemodynamic instability develops, repeat imaging and possible embolization or surgical exploration may be needed. Conservatively managed kidneys with collecting system injuries should be reimaged 3 to 5 days later to evaluate persistent urine leak or urinoma formation. Patients with large leaks are typically managed with indwelling stents, while large or infected urinomas are drained percutaneously. For patients with a urine leak, Foley catheter drainage is used to decompress the urinary system, and antibiotic therapy is used to prevent infected urinomas.

INDICATIONS FOR EMBOLIZATION:

Angiography and embolization are recommended for

- (1) patients with persistent bleeding from a segmental renal artery
- (2) unstable patients with a Grade III or IV renal injury
- (3) treating a pseudo-aneurysm or arteriovenous malformation
- (4) cases of persistent gross haematuria
- (5) a rapidly declining haematocrit requiring 2 units of blood

ABSOLUTE INDICATIONS FOR RENAL EXPLORATION INCLUDE:

- expanding, pulsatile, uncontained retroperitoneal hematomas
- renal pedicle avulsion
- persistent, life-threatening haemorrhage or shock
- ureteropelvic junction disruption.

RELATIVE INDICATIONS FOR RENAL EXPLORATION INCLUDE:

- urinary extravasation with nonviable tissue
- concurrent colon/pancreas/ trauma exploration with incomplete staging or Grade III or greater concurrent renal injury
- renovascular hypertension
- failed embolization.

HOLLOW VISCUS INJURY –

Small and large bowel injuries are infrequent but potentially morbid sequelae of abdominal trauma. Of the 2.5 million patients in the National Trauma Databank, years 2007 to 2010, full-thickness small and large bowel injuries occurred in approximately 0.3% and 0.4%, respectively. Mortality rates are significant—9.7% for small bowel injuries and 9.2% for large bowel injuries—and death results largely from associated injuries. Mean lengths of hospital stays are 11 and 14 days, respectively. In 2003, the Eastern Association for the Surgery of Trauma published results of a multi-institutional survey of hollow viscus injuries, collecting data from 95 participating centres between the years 1998 and 1999. The incidences of perforating small and large bowel injuries were 0.3% and 0.2% of all trauma admissions. The marked improvement in mortality rates since then can be attributed to advances in diagnosis and management of traumatic injuries overall.

Motor vehicle crashes and impact injuries in pedestrians have been shown to produce a higher incidence of bowel injuries than do falls and other modes of blunt trauma.

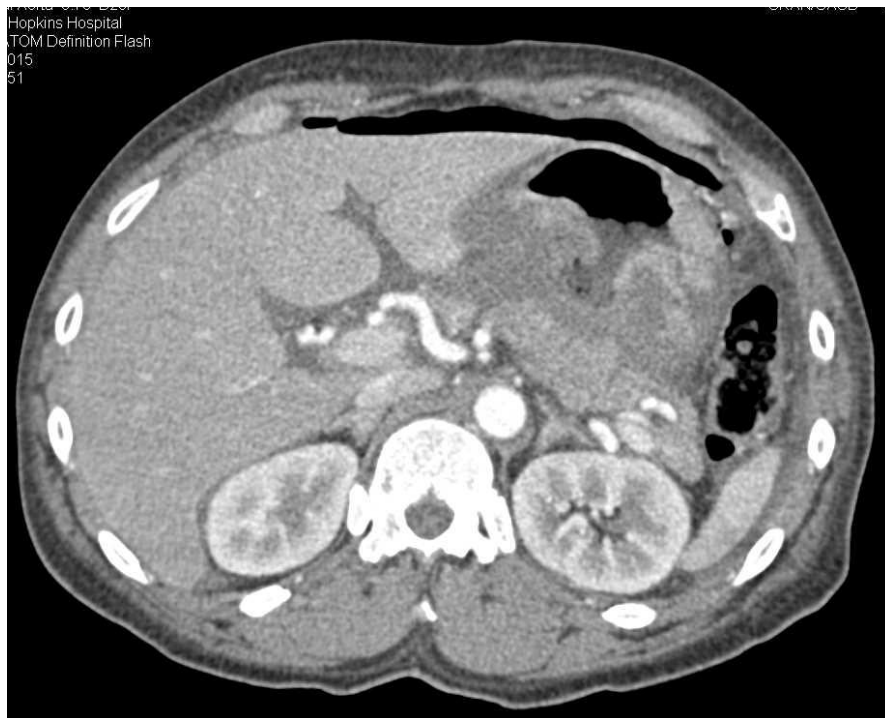
Mechanisms of bowel injury include shearing of the bowel from its mesentery secondary to sudden deceleration, and “blow-out” of a loop of bowel as a result of a sudden increase in

intraluminal pressure. The latter occasionally occurs when a high-riding automobile lap-belt squeezes a loop of bowel against the retroperitoneum or spine. The degree of suspicion for this type of injury should be high when the so-called seatbelt sign—a transverse ecchymosis visible on the lower abdominal wall, corresponding to the position of the seatbelt on the patient—is present. The presence of a seatbelt sign alone is associated with a markedly increased risk of a bowel injury.

Frequently, physical examination findings are not reliable because the patient is affected by alcohol or drug intoxication, head injuries, heavy sedation, or neurologic deficit. In these circumstances, other adjunct tests are helpful. An upright chest radiograph may show air under the diaphragm or a Chance fracture of the lumbar vertebral body. Chance fractures have been associated with bowel injuries and are caused by decelerating mechanisms, as with high-riding automobile seatbelts in high-speed motor vehicle crashes. Another useful tool is the focused assessment with sonography for trauma (FAST) examination, which may identify free fluid in the abdominal cavity. Computed tomographic (CT) scanning has become the standard diagnostic tool for occult abdominal injuries. Because of advances in technology and availability, its use has become widespread. Helical CT scanners have been shown to have a high accuracy in detecting gastrointestinal injuries, with sensitivities ranging from 83% to 94% for bowel injuries. It causes unnecessary delays in diagnosis, increases risk of aspiration, and has not conclusively been demonstrated to increase the accuracy of scans. CT findings suggestive of small or large bowel injury include pneumoperitoneum, intraperitoneal fluid not associated with solid organ injury, bowel wall thickening, mesenteric fat streaking, mesenteric hematoma, and extravasation of luminal content. If free fluid is the only CT finding in a hemodynamically stable patient, then the surgeon either can continue to observe the patient if the patient is able to cooperate with serial clinical examinations or can perform diagnostic laparoscopy or even exploratory laparotomy. The “gold standard” for

diagnosing bowel injuries remains the exploratory laparotomy. However, this procedure can also produce morbidity. Thus, the resultant challenge is the need to combine the aforementioned adjunct diagnostic tests to create a composite sensitivity of 100% for detecting bowel injuries, balanced by the importance of minimizing nontherapeutic laparotomies. Once detected, bowel injuries are managed surgically.





OPERATIVE PRINCIPLES FOR MANAGING BOWEL INJURIES

1. Completely define all injuries with proper dissection.
2. Grade injuries according to severity.
3. Decide on type of repair: simple repair or resection and repair.
4. Debride all devitalized tissue.
5. Resect bowel that has any evidence of ischemia.
6. Establish clean bowel edges in the area of repair.
7. Use absorbable suture if a stapling technique is not employed.
8. Repair lacerations transversely to avoid strictures.
9. Close mesenteric defects.
10. Irrigate peritoneal cavity with warm saline solution.

Consideration of ostomy creation is reserved for “high risk “patients with destructive injuries; such patients are defined as those with a high penetrating abdominal trauma, those with high transfusion requirements (greater than six units), and those in whom surgery is delayed.

EXTREMITY INJURY –

In general, the amount of energy absorbed by a multiply injured patient corresponds to the extent of the musculoskeletal injuries. Because high energy is frequently involved, fractures and soft tissue injuries are common.

Examination of a multiply injured patient must first follow advanced trauma life support (ATLS) protocols in a systematic fashion and must be accompanied by appropriate treatment. The concept of life before limb demands that the ABCs (*a*irway, *b*reathing, and *c*irculation) be addressed prior to evaluating for any orthopaedic injuries. Hemodynamically unstable patients are assumed to be in hemorrhagic shock until proven otherwise. Pelvic instability and the need for rapid external pelvic fixation are addressed. The patient's neurologic status is noted on admission, and the Glasgow Coma Scale score is calculated. Patients with suspected head injury need to be evaluated as soon as possible by CT. Peripheral vascular injuries and musculoskeletal injuries are next in priority, followed by maxillofacial injuries.

DIAGNOSTIC IMAGING –

The secondary survey dictates which extremity radiographs are necessary. When filming long bone injuries, it is important to verify the integrity of adjacent limb segments. Therefore, the joints above and below the level of injury are always included in the films. They are filmed separately if the cassette is not large enough to accommodate the entire view. Similarly, when pathology is suspected in a joint, the long bones above and below are also imaged. This practice helps identify commonly associated injuries to the adjacent limb segments that might otherwise be missed. Because bone is a three-dimensional object, a single two-dimensional radiograph cannot describe a fracture. To understand the position and direction of the fracture fragments, orthogonal views (images taken at 90 degrees to one another) must be obtained. A

bone may appear minimally displaced in one plane, but in another view, may be significantly displaced. All extremities with deformity need to be rotated to the anatomic position before taking radiographs to help decrease confusion when describing the fracture. When finer detail is necessary to evaluate a fracture pattern better or confirm the findings of an equivocal x-ray, a CT scan should be ordered. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has become a particularly useful imaging modality. It is used to evaluate soft tissue, acute fractures, stress fractures, spinal cord injuries, and intra-articular pathology.

INITIAL MANAGEMENT

It is essential that the initial treating physician performs a thorough assessment and begins initial management, including splinting and wound care.

WOUND MANAGEMENT

After a thorough physical examination, treatment is begun immediately. All wound dressings and contraction splints placed in the field should be removed by a single examiner to evaluate the degree of deformity and soft tissue injury. Superficial contamination by dirt, gravel, or grass is removed. Using sterile technique, wounds should be irrigated with sterile saline and mechanically debrided in the ED after sterile dressings are placed over the wounds in the ED, they should remain in place until the time of operative irrigation and debridement (I&D). Careless wound management in the ED has been shown to increase the ultimate infection rate by 300% to 400%. Tetanus prophylaxis and broad-spectrum intravenous (IV) antibiotics are administered. Immobilization is then undertaken in the same manner as for a closed injury. External bleeding in the extremities is controlled by direct manual pressure.

REDUCTION AND IMMOBILIZATION –

All displaced fractures and dislocations are gently reduced to re-establish limb alignment provisionally. If the patient's condition allows, precise reductions are performed and the extremities are splinted formally to maintain the fracture reduction. With time, the difficulty of reduction increases because of edema and muscle spasm. Therefore, reduction needs to be attempted as soon as possible and with the patient as relaxed as possible. Often, narcotic analgesics and sedatives are necessary, particularly with large joint dislocations. Muscle spasm can obstruct atraumatic reduction of these injuries. If a joint is still dislocated after adequate sedation and relaxation, general anaesthesia may be necessary.

Reduction manoeuvres follow the same principles for all fracture and dislocation types.

First, in-line traction is applied to the limb. If the soft tissue envelope surrounding the fracture fragments are intact, in-line traction alone may produce satisfactory alignment via ligamentotaxis. In most cases, the deformity must be re-created and exaggerated to unhook the fractured ends. While still pulling traction, the mechanism of injury is reversed and the fracture reduced. Neurovascular status is documented before and after any reduction manoeuvre or splint application. Once satisfactory reduction or alignment is achieved, it must be maintained by immobilization through casting, splinting, or continuous traction. The joints above and below the fracture must be included to prevent displacement. Post reduction radiographs are required to confirm alignment and rotation. Nondisplaced fractures are treated like displaced fractures, without reduction. Most nondisplaced fractures do not require surgical treatment. Splints are placed initially and then changed to circumferential casts after the swelling subsides.

Ligamentous injuries may also require immobilization. The joint is fully evaluated as described earlier, and a thorough neurovascular examination is performed on the limb.

The rationale for immobilization is threefold. First, splinting, particularly with traction or compression devices, reduces bleeding by reducing the volume of the muscular compartments. Second, additional soft tissue injury may be averted, and the chance of converting a closed to an open fracture by sharp bony fragments is reduced. Third, immobilization of the fracture reduces patient discomfort and facilitates transportation and radiographic evaluation of the patient. All fractures and dislocations are splinted or immobilized in the ED. Usually, splints are fashioned from padded plaster or fiberglass. Different splinting techniques are used to immobilize each type of fracture. A volar or ulnar gutter splint is used for fractures of the hand. A sugar tong splint is used for wrist or forearm fractures. This splint prevents flexion and extension at the wrist and elbow, as well as pronation and supination of the forearm. A posterior elbow splint is applied for fractures or dislocations of this joint. For humeral shaft fractures, a coaptation or posterior splint is used. When there is minimal swelling present with a humeral shaft fracture, a functional fracture brace may be applied in the emergency room. A short-leg splint consisting of a posterior slab and a U or stirrup components used for pathology of the foot and ankle. With the addition of side slabs crossing the knee, this splint can be extended into a long-leg splint for tibial fractures or knee dislocations. Splints can be secured with a bias-cut stockinette, elastic wraps, or gauze bandage, provided that they are wrapped in a nonconstrictive fashion.

The role of circumferential casting in the acute setting is questionable. Because swelling of the injured extremity increases for 48 to 72 hours, a circular cast can be too constrictive and may lead to pressure necrosis or compartment syndrome.

TRACTION –

Traction is used to immobilize fractures or dislocations displaced by muscle forces that cannot be adequately controlled with simple splints. The most common indications are vertical shear injuries of the pelvis, hip dislocations, acetabular fractures, and fractures of the proximal femur or femoral shaft.

FACIAL INJURY:

EMERGENT TREATMENT OF FACIAL TRAUMA -

The evaluation of any patient who presents with a traumatic injury begins with the Advanced Trauma Life Support (ATLS) protocol. An assessment of the ABCs (airway, breathing, and circulation) must be made judiciously before evaluation of the facial injuries. Airway evaluation is of particular importance because of the myriad head and neck injuries that can cause airway compromise (i.e., larynx trauma, mandible fractures, neck hematoma, etc.). Acute airway management may require direct laryngoscopy with intubation, fiberoptic intubation, or a surgical airway (cricothyrotomy or emergent tracheotomy). Because of the vascular nature of the head and neck region, traumatic injuries may present with haemorrhage that needs to be urgently addressed. The acute management of haemorrhage in the head and neck is vital as a result of the potential for airway compromise, from extraluminal compression (neck hematoma, bilateral mandible fracture), intraluminal obstruction (epistaxis, oral cavity/oropharyngeal bleeding), or airway luminal separation (laryngotracheal injury).

EVALUATION OF FACIAL TRAUMA:

After immediate life-threatening conditions are ruled out or stabilized, attention can be

focused on a comprehensive assessment of facial injuries. The physical examination of the head and neck is a critical aspect of the evaluation of patients with facial trauma. This examination should begin by carefully cleaning the head and neck of debris and blood to allow a thorough visual inspection. These patients are often intubated and present for evaluation with a cervical collar placed by first responders in the field. Without confirmation of cervical spine stability, the trauma patient must be maintained in inline stabilization.

Radiographic evaluation should be a precursor to removal of the immobilizer.

The examination of the face should proceed in thirds: upper face, mid face, and lower face. Evaluate each third of the face for neurovascular integrity, bony fractures, and lacerations. A systematic assessment of sensation and voluntary facial movement should be performed in each third of the face. Unique structures in each region require special assessment. For example, in the upper face, integrity of the frontal bone overlying the frontal sinuses should be assessed. The midface assessment should include a thorough assessment of the eyes, including pupillary light reflex, extraocular movements, globe position, and visual acuity. An evaluation of the bony structures should include palpation of the inferior and lateral orbital rim, bony nasal dorsum, zygomatic arch, palate, and maxillary dentition. An intranasal examination should also be performed to rule out a septal hematoma. The lower face assessment should include palpation of the mandible and mandibular dentition as well as assessment of the floor of mouth, tongue, and oral airway. Special attention should also be given to the patient's occlusion, bite abnormalities (open bite, cross bite, early contact) and dental wear facets. Once the facial examination is complete, the examination of the scalp, ears, and neck completes the head and neck examination. The hair-bearing scalp should be carefully assessed for lacerations and foreign bodies. The ears are assessed for lacerations, auricular hematoma, otorrhea, and hemotympanum. The neck is assessed for crepitus, lacerations, foreign bodies, and hematomas. Special attention should be given to the palpation

of the larynx to assess for occult injuries and fractures.

Several imaging modalities are useful in the evaluation of facial trauma. The selection of the imaging modality depends on the primary survey, the mechanism of injury (blunt versus blast versus penetrating), and the suspected injuries. CT scan is the primary radiographic study used for the evaluation of facial fractures.

Three-dimensional reconstruction of axial and coronal CT scan images can also be obtained and may provide the additional advantage of helping in the planning of any surgical repair. In the absence of three-dimensional reconstruction, a panoramic tomographic view, or panorex, of the mandible may allow improved characterization of fractures, specifically, ramus and subcondylar fractures.

The facial skeleton can be divided into two major structural components: the vertical and the horizontal buttresses. The vertical buttresses include the vertical portion of the mandible, nasomaxillary buttress, zygomaticomaxillary buttress, and the pterygomaxillary buttress. Their primary functional role is with mastication, so they are strong and well developed to withstand these compressive forces. The horizontal buttresses include the frontal bar, inferior orbital rim, and hard palate. These support structures act as an interconnected framework to stabilize the vertical buttresses.

MANDIBULAR FRACTURES -

Mandibular fractures are the second most common facial fracture. Mandibular fractures are classified according to the location of the fracture: symphysis/parasymphysis, body, angle, ramus, coronoid process, and condyle.

The most common sites of fracture are the angle and body, followed by the symphysis/parasymphysis. Assessment should include palpation of the mandible, inspection of the

quality of the mandibular dentition, inspection of dental wear facets, and mental nerve function. CT scan of the facial bones and mandible is necessary to evaluate the extent of injury. When possible, evaluation of the patient's occlusion and mouth opening should be made. Presenting signs and symptoms include trismus, malocclusion, numbness, and loose or missing teeth. A discussion of the patient's preinjury occlusion can also be helpful.

TREATMENT -

The ultimate goals of mandibular fracture management are restoration of the preinjury occlusion, bony union after reduction of fracture segments, and preservation of facial contour and facial height. The location and type of mandibular fracture (greenstick, displaced/nondisplaced, comminuted/noncomminuted) dictate the surgical approach, the hardware used, and the nature of postoperative rehabilitation. Greenstick fractures can be treated with closed reduction without fixation and maintenance of a soft diet. Maxillomandibular fixation (MMF) can be used to achieve closed reduction in patients who cannot spontaneously bring their teeth to their preinjury occlusion. Steel arch bars are applied to the maxillary and mandibular gingiva and tightly secured to the underlying dentition with loops of 24-gauge wire. The maxillary arch bar is then fastened to the mandibular arch bar, locking the patient into rigid fixation and ideally the preinjury occlusion. MMF should be maintained for approximately 6 weeks. MMF should be used with caution in patients with questionable mental status, mental retardation, seizure history, or substance abuse history. These patients may not be capable of removing their MMF in the event of emesis, which can lead to aspiration and potentially life-threatening airway compromise. Beyond the airway risks, MMF has significant morbidity associated with its use. These prolonged and significant

morbidities have led to the increased use of open approaches with permanent rigid internal fixation as the primary mode of treatment for the vast majority of operative mandibular fractures. The use of dynamic compression plates allows a force vector to be created across the fracture line to optimize bone healing and reduce callus formation. Condylar fractures are unique because of the complexities with surgical approach and the difficulties with plating at this location. They can be managed closed (with or without MMF) or open (Side, 1983; Palmieri, 1999; De Riu, 2001).

Most high ramus and nondisplaced angle fractures do not warrant the morbidity of an open approach and can be treated with a closed approach with or without MMF. Isolated coronoid process fractures are rare and usually do not require treatment.

COMPLICATIONS:

The major complications of mandibular fractures are infection, malunion, non-union, malocclusion, and TMJ dysfunction. Antibiotics in the perioperative period have not been associated with a decrease in infection risk. The risk of TMJ ankylosis can be reduced with shorter periods of MMF (<3 weeks) and physiotherapy, such as range of motion exercises.

NASAL FRACTURES:

Nasal bone fractures can be unilateral, bilateral, nondisplaced, and displaced and with variable involvement of the septum. Assessment should include palpation of the nasal bones, nasal dorsum, and intranasal examination for septal hematoma or fracture. Radiographic imaging is usually not necessary in isolated nasal bone fractures but may be warranted depending on the comorbid injuries. Presenting signs and symptoms include epistaxis, nasal

airway obstruction, alterations in smell, and cosmetic deformity. A review of the patient's preinjury nasal breathing and appearance can be helpful.

TREATMENT:

The goals of nasal fracture management are to re-establish the preinjury nasal airway and restore the nasal contour. Nasal fractures can be treated with closed reduction or open reduction with osteotomy of the nasal bones. Closed reduction involves the mobilization of displaced nasal bones and cartilages with or without the use of a blunt elevating instrument inserted into the nose. Rapid spontaneous healing of these fractures requires acute intervention within 10 days of the injury. Even with early intervention, however, unsatisfactory cosmeses may still necessitate an open reduction procedure in the future. If the fractures are not managed within the acute time frame, then it is generally advisable to wait at least 3 months for adequate bone healing and overall nasal structural stabilization before performing an open reduction with osteotomy of the nasal bones. After reduction of the nasal fracture, external fixation should be applied with a nasal splint. If necessary for nasal breathing, a septoplasty may be performed in the operating room to correct any septal deviation or fracture. A septal hematoma should be drained as soon as possible to prevent septal cartilage necrosis, septal perforation, and potential saddle nose deformity.

ZYGOMATICOMAXILLARY COMPLEX FRACTURES -

Anatomically, zygomaticomaxillary complex (ZMC) fractures involve four suture lines: zygomaticofrontal, zygomaticomaxillary, zygomaticotemporal, and zygomatic sphenoid. Radiographically, ZMC fractures usually involve fractures of the lateral orbital wall, orbital

floor/inferior orbital rim, anterior maxillary sinus wall, lateral maxillary sinus wall, and zygomatic arch. ZMC fractures can lead to significant aesthetic disturbances because the malar eminence of the zygoma is the most anterior projection of the lateral mid face and the zygomatic arch is the most lateral projection of the mid face. Assessment should include palpation of the zygoma, intraoral and intranasal examination, mouth opening, visual acuity check with extraocular muscle function, and midface sensation. Ophthalmologic consultation should be considered for any vision symptoms or significant orbital injury. CT scan of the facial bones and sinuses is a critical portion of the assessment of ZMC fractures. Presenting signs and symptoms include epistaxis, vision changes, midface and dental numbness, malar depression, enophthalmos, trismus, and malocclusion.

TREATMENT:

The goals of ZMC fracture management are restoration of the height, width, and projection of the malar eminence; reestablishment of the buttresses of the mid face; restoration of orbital volume; and adequate reduction of the fractures. Fractures can be approached with a combination of surgical incisions: upper gingivobuccal (sub labial), lateral upper blepharoplasty, transconjunctival, sub ciliary, or Gilles. After exposure and adequate reduction of the fractures, forced duction testing should be performed to rule out extraocular muscle entrapment during fracture reduction. Confirmation of continuity of the orbital floor after fracture reduction should also be considered. Fixation should be done at a minimum of two fracture points with plates and screws. Isolated zygomatic arch fractures may need to be reduced if the fracture produces a depression over the lateral face or if the fracture segments impinge on the temporalis muscle, leading to trismus or masticatory dysfunction. Maxillary sinus fractures in isolation without other associated ZMC fractures rarely require

intervention. Patient counselling regarding the risks of facial and orbital cellulitis and swelling with future episodes of sinusitis is advisable when appropriate.

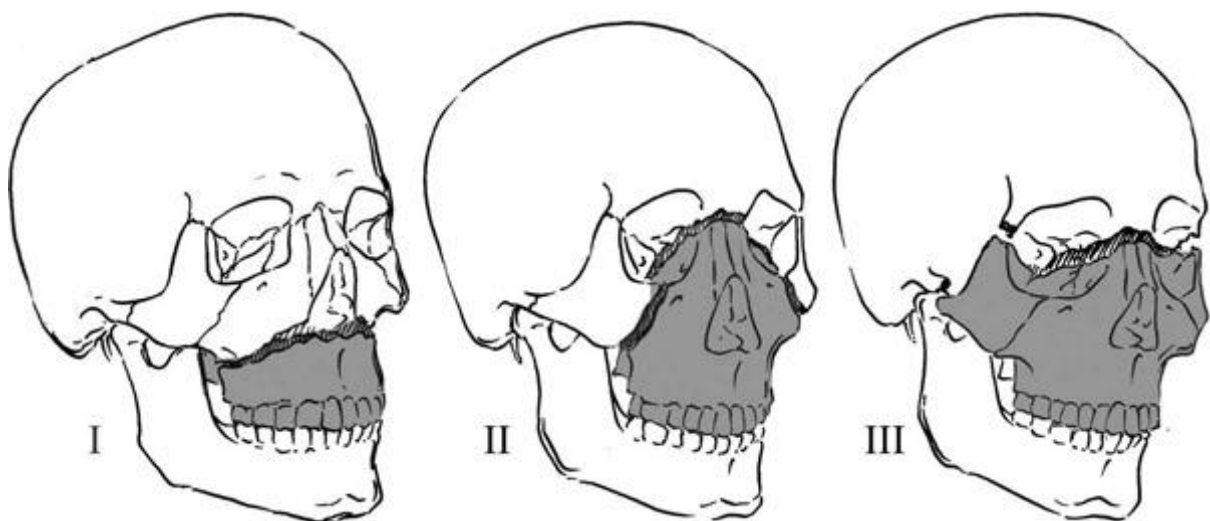
COMPLICATIONS:

The major complications of zygomaticomaxillary complex fractures include maxillary nerve anaesthesia, trismus, globe malposition, vision changes, ectropion, and malar depression.

LE FORT FRACTURES -

Types:

The Le Fort fracture classification scheme is used to describe midface fracture patterns with separation of the tooth-bearing bone and cranium. All Le Fort fractures have bilateral pterygoid plate fractures.



Type 1 is a horizontal fracture through the maxilla superior to the maxillary dentition.

Type 2 is a pyramidal fracture through the maxilla and orbit, outlining the nose.

Type 3 is a fracture of the facial bones from the skull, a complete craniofacial separation.

These fracture patterns are suggestive of a high impact trauma. Assessment should include manipulation of the hard palate relative to the skull, facial sensation, visual acuity check with extraocular muscle function, and intraoral and intranasal examination. CT scan of the facial

bones and sinuses is a critical portion of the assessment of Le Fort fractures. Presenting signs and symptoms include facial anaesthesia, epistaxis, vision changes, and malocclusion.

TREATMENT:

The goals of Le Fort fracture management are restoration of the continuity of the facial bones with the cranium and reduction of fractures with the goal of returning the patient to the preinjury occlusion. Putting the patient into MMF ensures satisfactory occlusion and provides a stable foundation for the remainder of the repair. Type 1 injuries can be approached through an upper gingivobuccal (sublabial) incision. Type 2 and 3 injuries usually require the addition of eyelid incisions or a coronal approach. The details of the management of Le Fort fractures are analogous to the management of ZMC fractures discussed previously.

COMPLICATIONS:

The major complications of Le Fort fractures include facial anesthesia, malocclusion, trismus, globe malposition, vision changes, ectropion, midfacial distortion, and nasal obstruction.

ORBITAL FRACTURES -

Orbital fractures can involve the inferior orbital rim, the lateral orbital rim, the medial orbital wall, the orbital floor, and rarely, the superior orbital rim. The isolated orbital floor fracture is commonly known as an orbital blowout fracture. These fractures can present with a trapdoor pattern with associated extraocular muscle entrapment seemingly outside of the orbital confines, especially in children. Assessment should include palpation of the orbital rims, evaluation of eyelid and globe condition and position, visual acuity check with extraocular

muscle function, and evaluation of forehead and midface sensation. Ophthalmologic consultation should be considered for any vision symptoms or for significant orbital injury. CT scan of the facial bones and sinuses is a critical portion of the assessment of orbital fractures. Presenting signs and symptoms include vision changes, forehead and midface numbness, enophthalmos, dystopia, chemosis, hyphema, and subconjunctival haemorrhage.

TREATMENT:

The goals of orbital fracture management are restoration of orbital structure and volume. Orbital fractures are unique from other facial fractures in that the goal of treatment is not the healing of fractured bone but the reconstruction of violated orbital walls to restore volume. For correction and prevention of enophthalmos, dystopia, and diplopia, the orbital volume and globe position of the injured eye must be comparable with that of the uninjured eye. Orbital fractures can usually be approached through upper and lower eyelid, upper gingivobuccal, and coronal incisions. Isolated orbital floor fractures medial to the infraorbital nerve may be amenable to trans-maxillary endoscopic repair. Isolated medial orbital wall fractures without extraocular muscle entrapment or significant orbital volume distortion do not require intervention. After adequate exposure of the orbital fracture is gained, the primary focus becomes restoration of the orbital volume. First, the orbital contents (extraocular muscles, fat, periorbital) are deposited back into the confines of the orbit. Next, the orbital wall defects are reconstructed with autogenous grafts (split calvarial bone, septal cartilage), absorbable alloplastic implants (polydioxanone, polyglycolide), or nonabsorbable alloplastic implants (titanium, silicone, polytetrafluoroethylene [PTFE], porous polyethylene).

COMPLICATIONS:

The major complications of orbital fractures include vision loss and changes, forehead and midface anaesthesia, and eyelid and globe malposition.

CONCLUSION –

The importance of the face goes beyond its function, form, or aesthetics.

An individual's membership and participation in society is contingent on the face. Although the trauma patient may present with many life-threatening and severe injuries, few are more damaging to an individual's existence than a significant trauma to a person's face.

STUDY METHODOLOGY

The study is a prospective analysis of cases of MVA victims admitted in Thanjavur Medical College, Tamilnadu which is a tertiary care centre covering around 7 districts and a referral center for other tertiary care centres. Since its proximity to various pilgrimage centres the number of MVAs is quite high. The study was done during the period between 2016 October to 2017 March after getting ethical clearance. Case sheets of MVA victims from the medical records sections were read and the necessary details were sought in terms of age, sex, residence, alcohol intake, type and site of injury and mortality. The cases with incomplete details were not taken into consideration.

INVESTIGATIONS DONE:

X rays

Ultrasonogram

Computed Tomography

Baseline investigations

- Complete hemogram
- Renal function tests
- ECG all leads

INTERVENTION DONE:

Head injury – CT Brain was taken for patients with suspected brain injury. Skull fractures were treated by elevation/excision/wound debridement and Emergency craniotomy with evacuation of clots was done for patients with intracranial haemorrhage deemed as necessary by neurosurgeons.

Chest injury – Chest X-ray was taken for patients with suspected chest injuries.

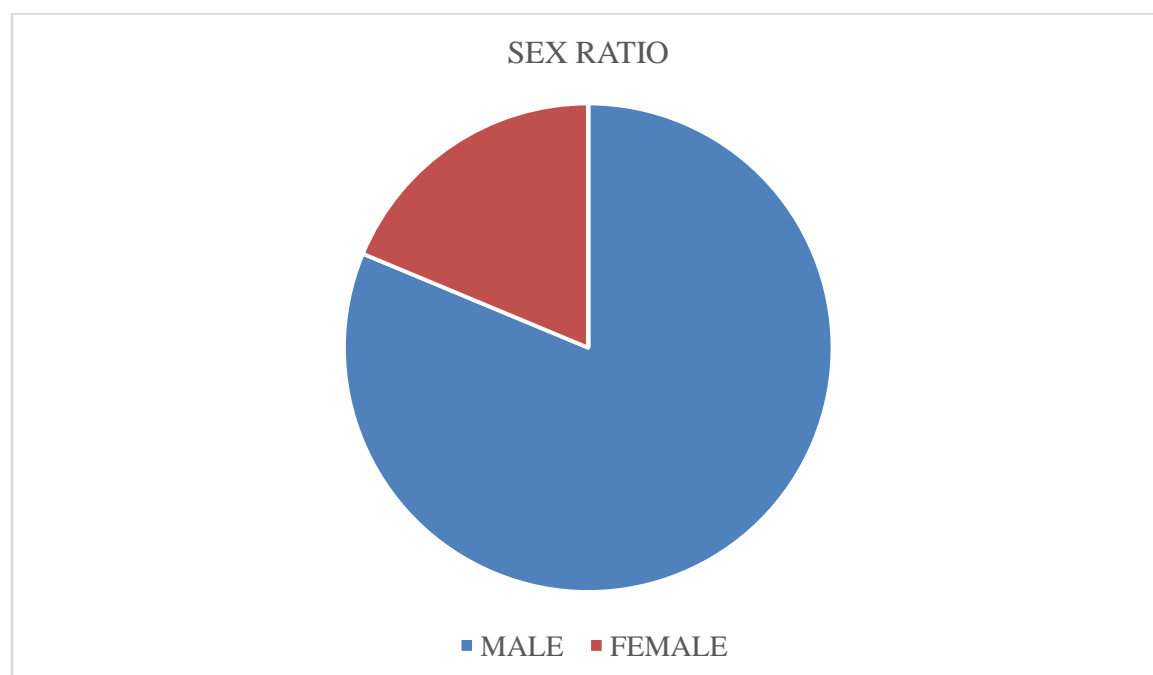
Patients were then advised CT Chest as required. Emergency tube thoracostomy or intercostal drainage for patients presenting with haemothorax, pneumothorax or both as deemed necessary by cardio-thoracic surgeons.

Abdominal injury – Chest X-ray and X-ray abdomen erect were taken for patients with suspected abdominal trauma. USG Abdomen and CT Abdomen were done as and when required. Emergency laparotomy followed by resection-anastomosis or ostomy in cases of bowel injuries. Splenectomy was done in cases of splenic injury. Peritoneal lavage was done in cases of liver injury after arresting the haemorrhage.

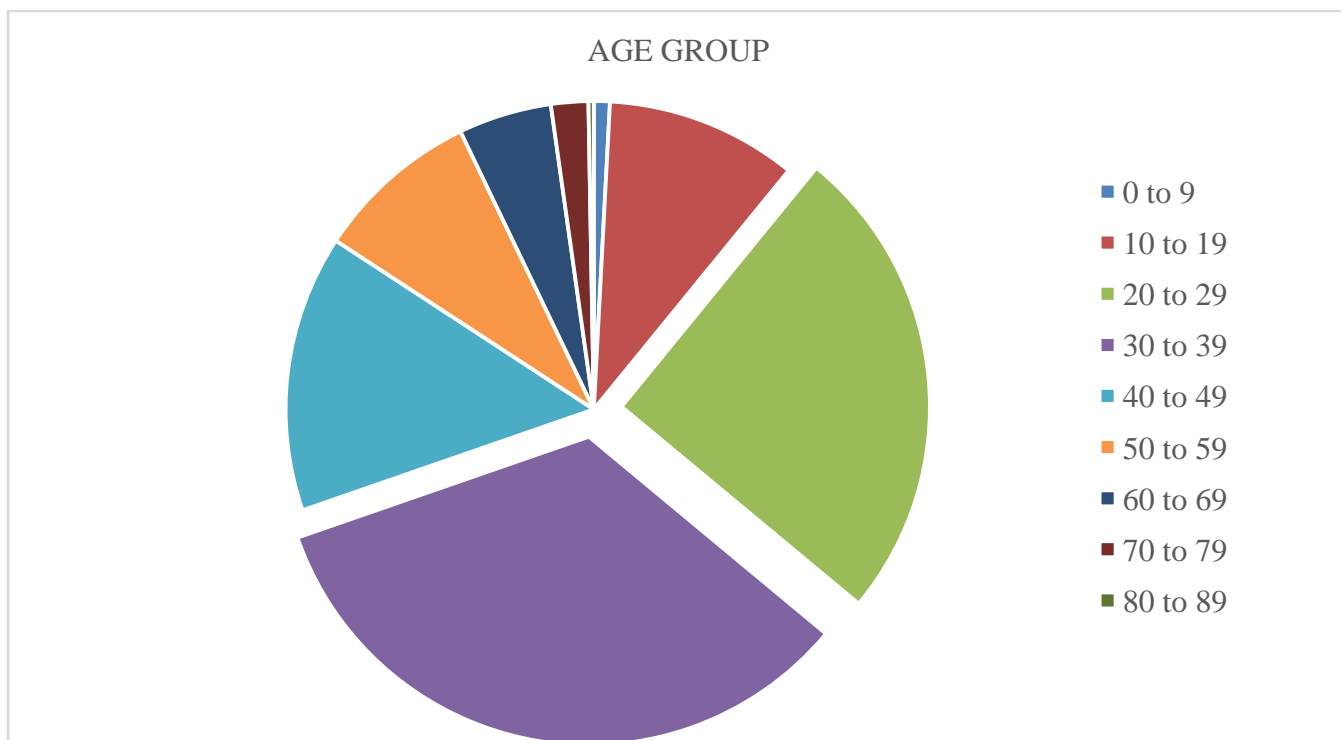
OBSERVATIONS AND RESULTS

716 patients presenting with injuries sustained in MVAs were included in the study and analysed.

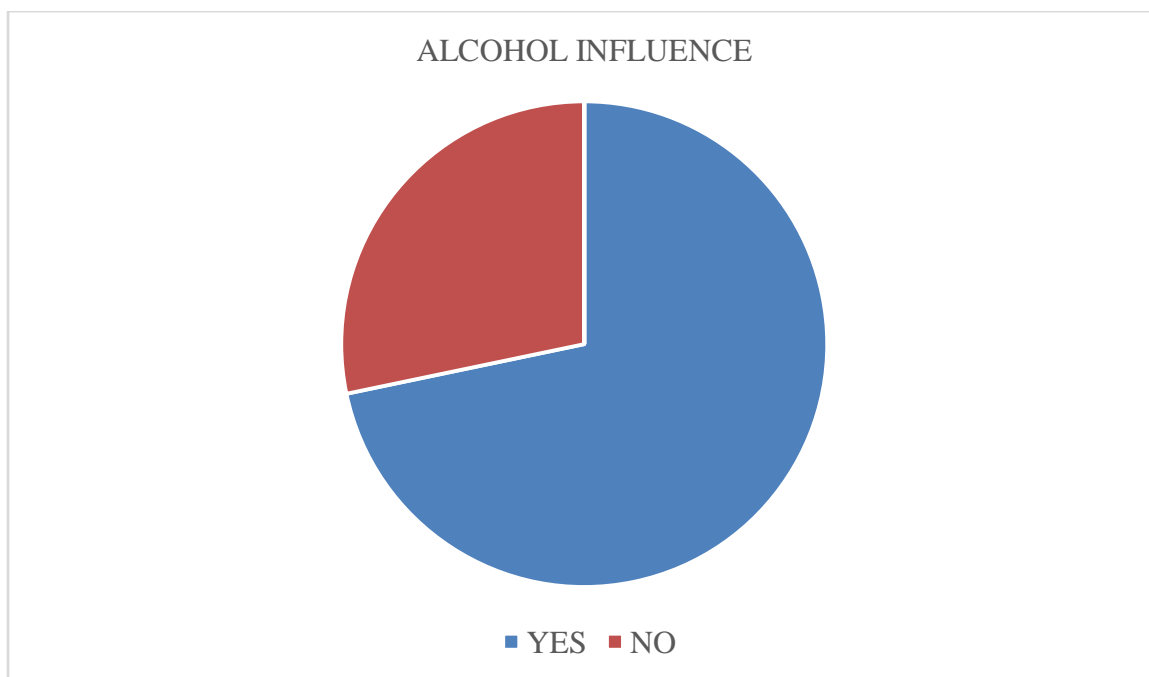
The patient's age ranged from 4 to 85 years with the mean age being 30.91 years. Out of total 716 victims, 582 (81.2%) were males, while only 134 (18.8%) were females. Highest numbers of victims were in 30-39 years age group, accounting for 241 (33.65%) patients. A total of 482 (67.31%) injured patients were intoxicated with alcohol at the time of accidents, all males.



SEX	NUMBER OF CASES (%)
MALE	582 (81.2)
FEMALE	134 (18.8)

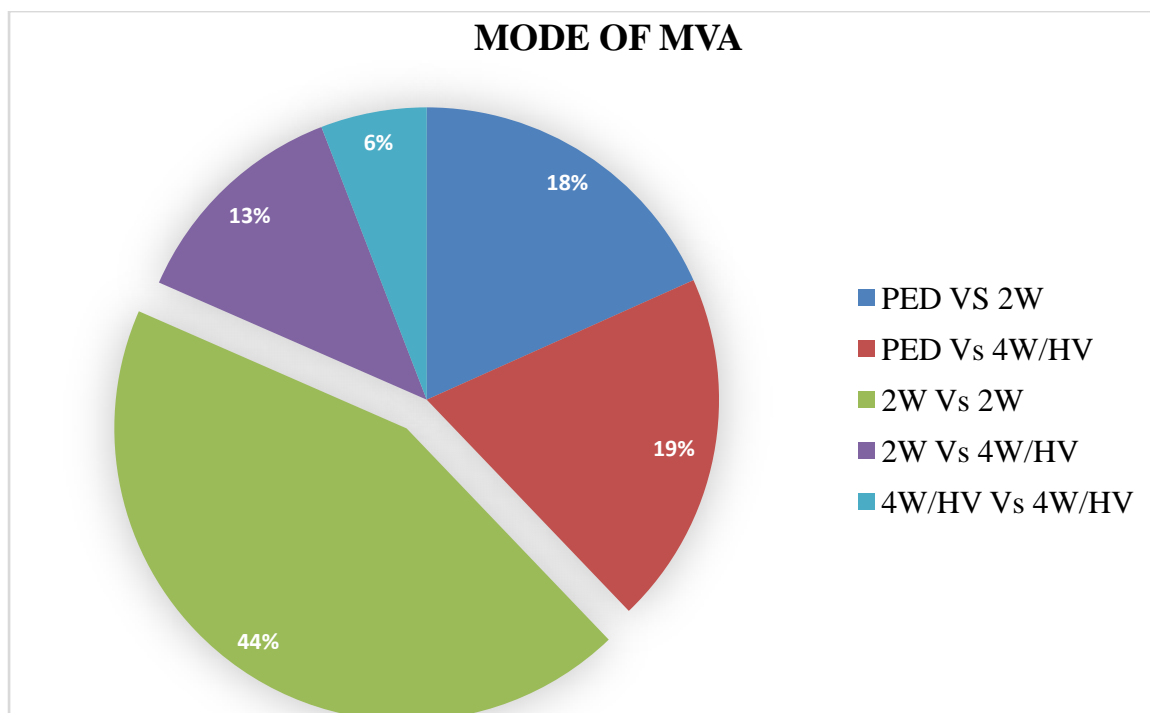


AGE GROUP (IN YEARS)	NUMBER OF CASES (%)
0-9	6 (0.8)
10-19	72 (10.1)
20-29	180 (25.1)
30-39	241 (33.7)
40-49	104 (14.6)
50-59	62 (8.7)
60-69	35 (4.9)
70-79	14 (1.9)
80-89	2 (0.2)



ALCOHOL INFLUENCE	NUMBER OF CASES (%)
YES	482 (67.3%)
NO	235 (32.7%)

The most common offender was two-wheeler vehicles. Regarding the type of collision, two wheeler to two wheeler collision was 313 (43.7) % was most common form among the causes observed, followed by collision of four wheeler to pedestrian (19.5%).

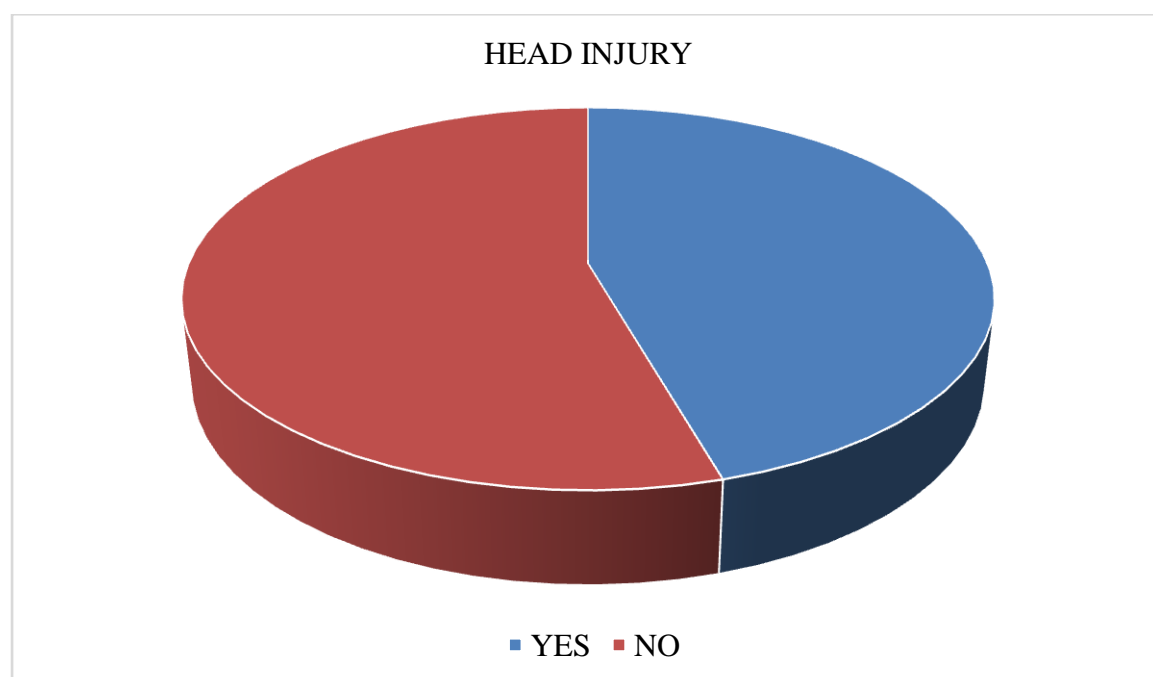


MODE OF MVA	NUMBER OF CASE (%)
PEDESTRIAN Vs 2 WHEELER	131 (18.3)
PEDESTRIAN Vs 4 WHEELER/HEAVY VEHICLES	140 (19.5)
2 WHEELER Vs 2 WHEELER	313 (43.7)
2 WHEELER Vs 4 WHEELER/HEAVY VEHICLES	90 (12.6)
4 WHEELER/HEAVY VEHICLES Vs 4 WHEELER/HEAVY VEHICLES	42 (5.9)
TOTAL	716

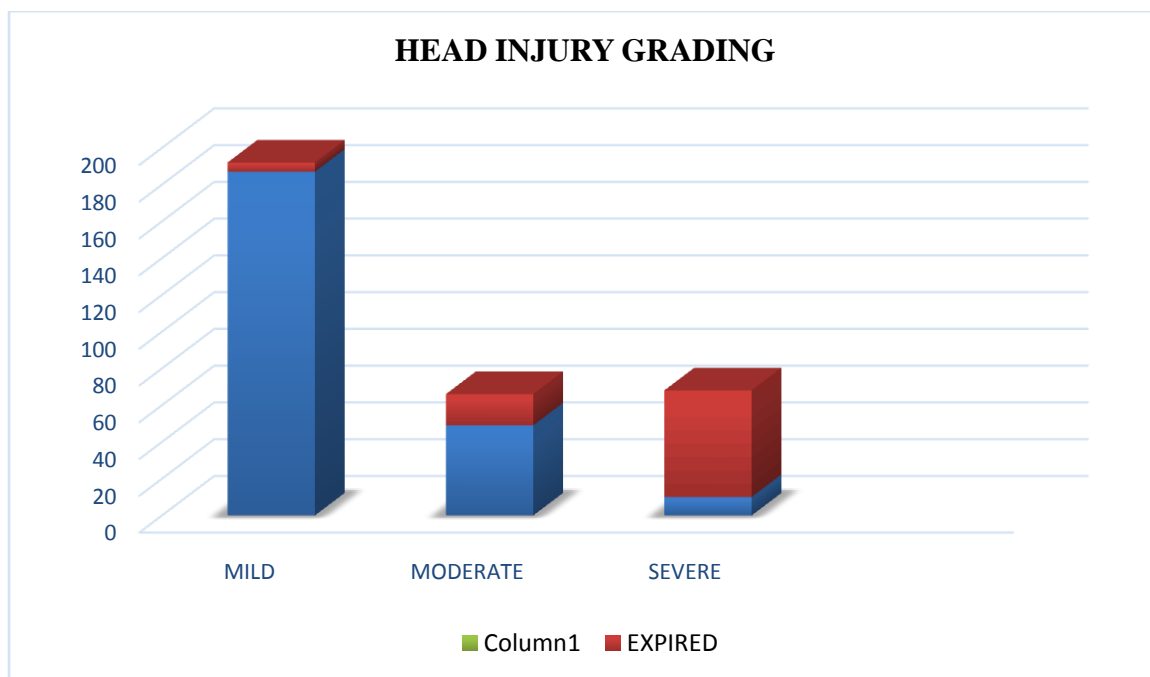
Head injuries 326 (45.5%) were the most common injuries followed by extremities 264 cases (36.8%). Among extremities, injuries were more common in the lower limb – 177 cases (66.4%) followed by upper limb – 87 cases (33.6%). In lower limb fractures, both tibia and fibula were commonly involved in 87 cases (48.79%) followed by femur in 30 cases (16.86%) and isolated tibia in 22 cases (12.65%). In upper limb fractures, isolated radius – 46 cases (54.76%) was most commonly involved followed by both radius and ulna in 22 cases (25.19%).

3 cases of vascular trauma were reported. 2 cases involving popliteal artery and 1 case involving radial artery. All three cases were operated on emergency basis.

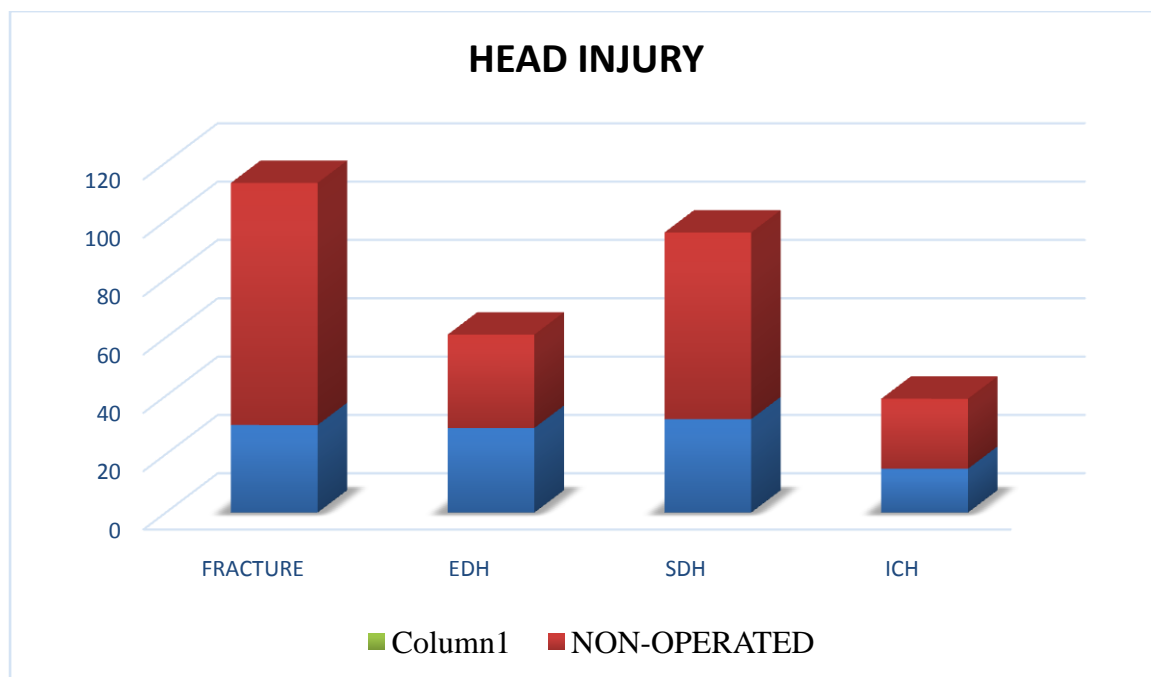
Head injury was the commonest form of internal injuries seen in victims which was observed in 326 victims, showing clinical symptoms like unconsciousness, ENT bleed, vomiting, and nausea. Cranial fractures were the most common injuries accounting for 113 cases (34.6%). Among intracranial haemorrhages, SDH was most common – 96 cases (29.4%) followed by EDH – 61 cases (18.7%).



HEAD INJURY	NUMBER OF PATIENTS
YES	326
NO	390

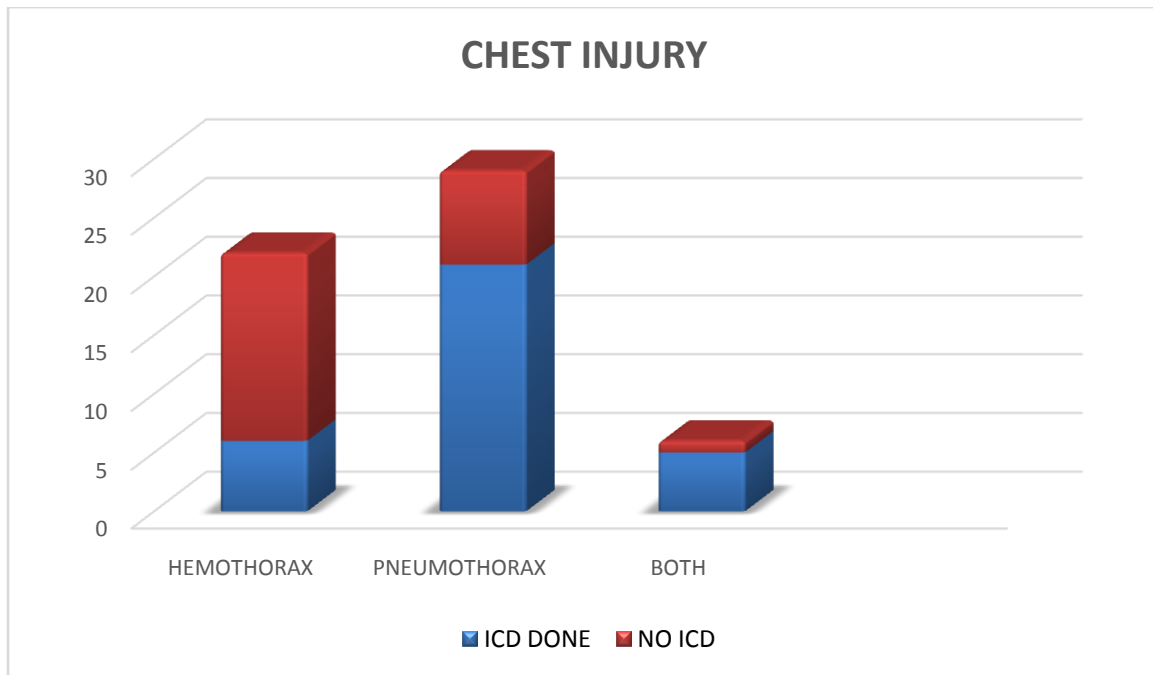


GRADING OF HEAD INJURY	NUMBER OF CASES	NUMBER OF DEATHS	PERCENTAGE OF DEATHS
MILD (GCS – 14/15)	192	5	2.6%
MODERATE (GCS – 9-13)	66	17	25.7%
SEVERE (GCS – 3 TO 8)	68	58	85%

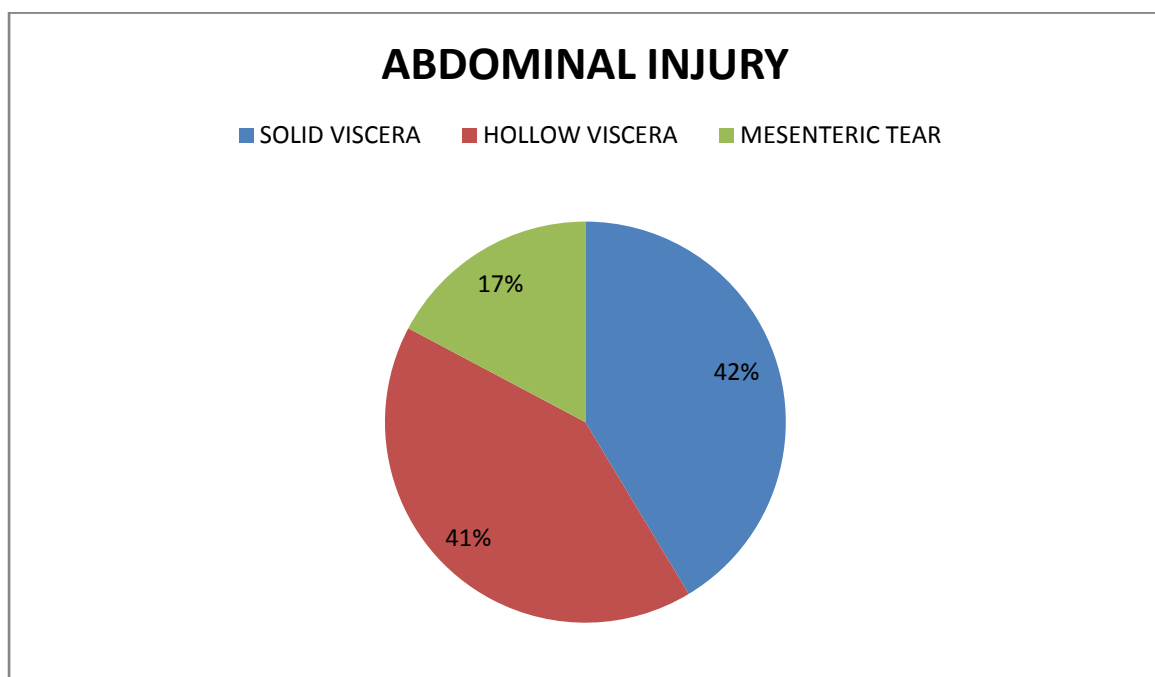


TYPE OF HEAD INJURY	NUMBER OF CASES	OPERATED CASES	PERCENTAGE
CRANIAL FRACTURE	113	30	26.5 %
EXTRADURAL HAEMORRHAGE	61	29	47.5 %
SUBDURAL HAEMORRHAGE	96	32	33.3 %
INTRACEREBRAL HAEMORRHAGE	39	15	38.4 %
SUBARACHNOID HAEMORRHAGE	15	0	0
DIFFUSE AXONAL INJURY	2	0	0
TOTAL	326	106	32.5%

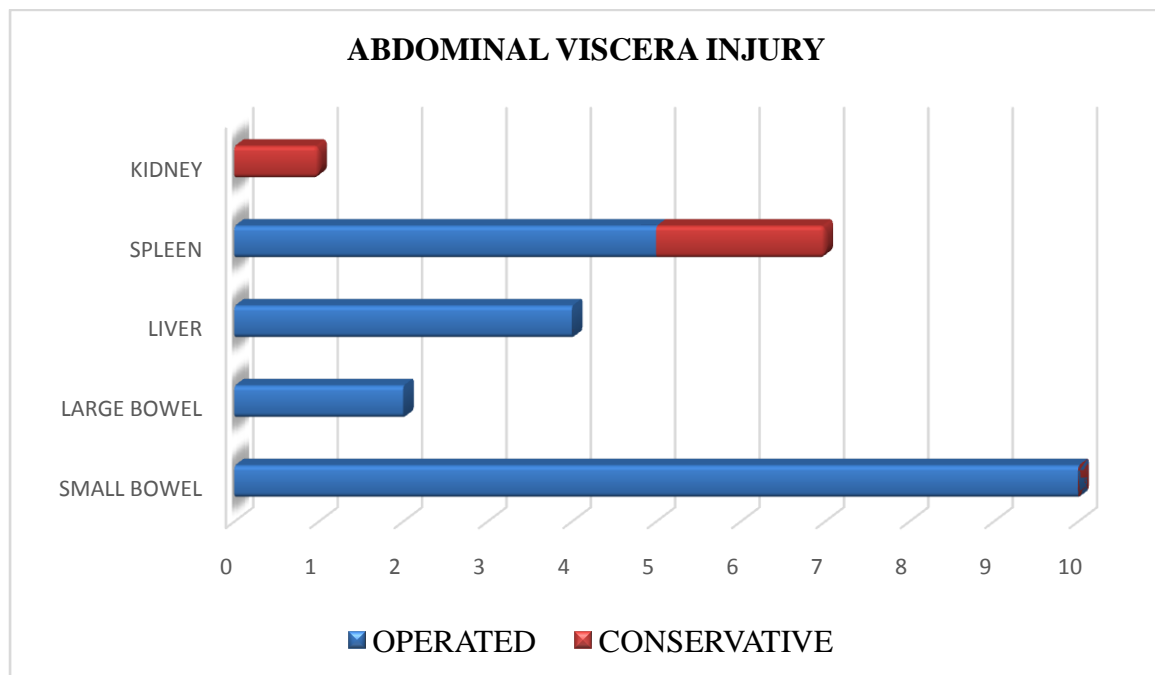
86 patients had torso injury of which 57 involved chest injuries (66.2%) and remaining 29 involved abdominal injury (33.8%). Of the abdominal visceral injury, 12 patients had hollow viscus injury and 12 patients had solid visceral injury. Out of the solid visceral injuries, 4 patients had liver injury and 7 patients had splenic injury and one patient had renal injury. Mesenteric tear was present in 5 cases.



DIAGNOSIS	ICD DONE	ICD NOT DONE	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
HEMOTHORAX	6	16	22	27 %
PNEUMOTHORAX	21	8	29	72.42 %
HEMOPNEUMOTHORAX	5	1	6	83.3% %

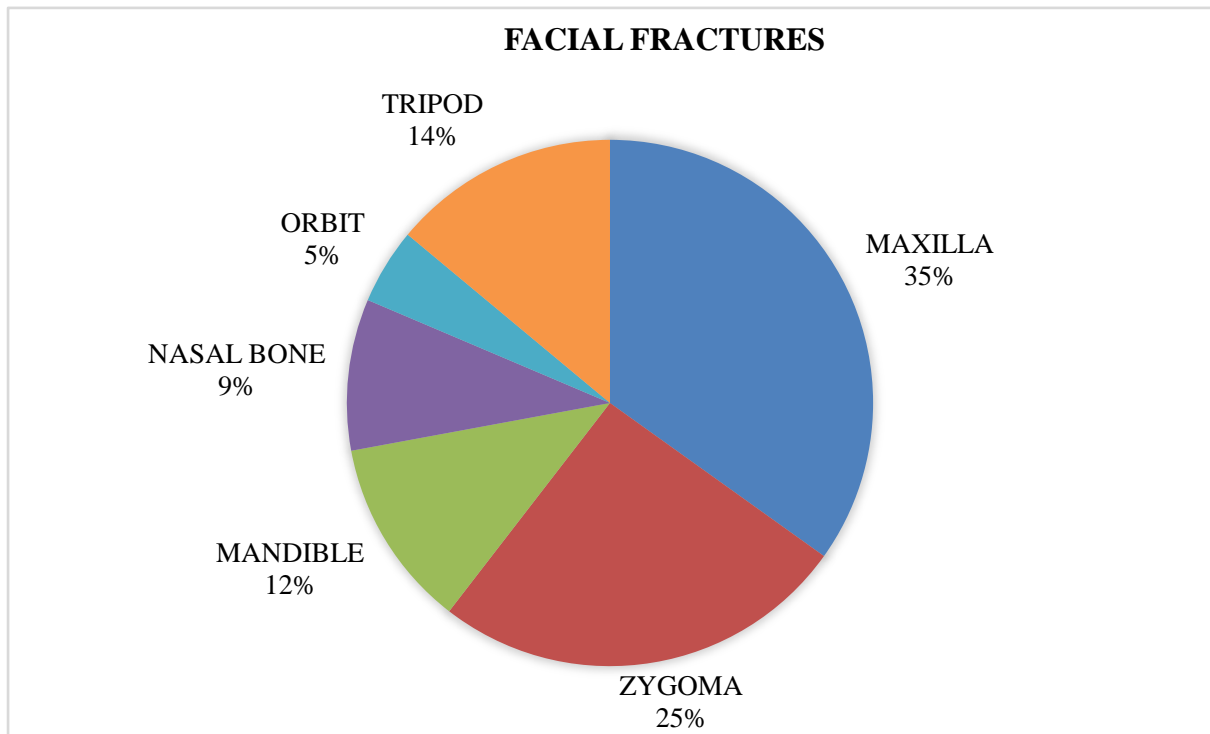


INJURED ORGAN	OPERATED	NON- OPERATED	TOTAL
HOLLOW VISCUS	12	0	12
SOLID VISCERA	9	3	12
MESENTERY	5	0	5



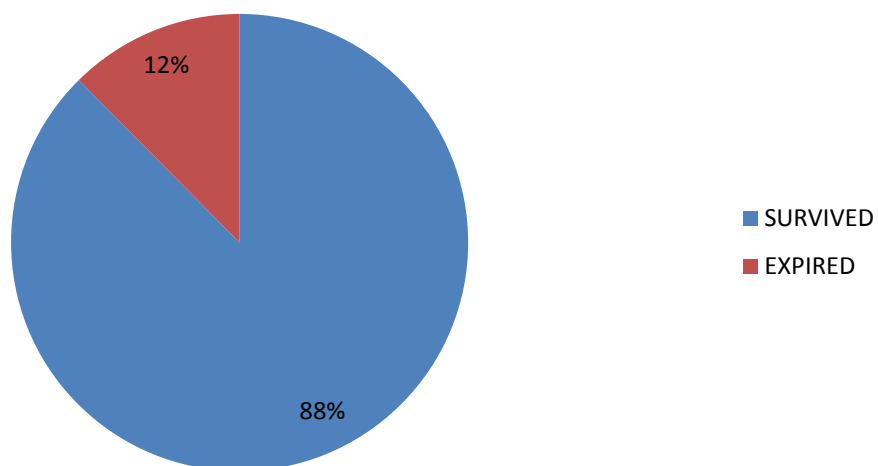
8 patients had spinal injury presenting with weakness of limbs. Out of which 7 had cervical spine injury and 1 had dorso-lumbar spine injury.

Among facial injuries, fractures were common in maxilla followed by zygoma. The commonest site of fracture was the lower limbs 177 (42.1%), followed by skull/maxillofacial bones 156 (37.2%).

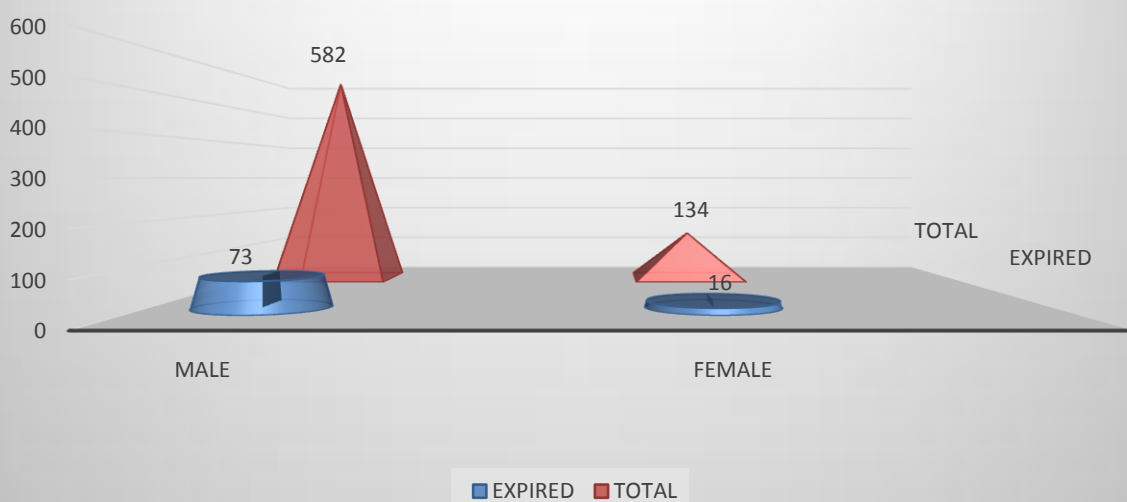


Among the 716 patients, 89 patients (12.4%) expired. 28 (31.4%) of them were among the productive age group of 30 – 39 years. 80 patients (89%) with head injury followed by 4 cases (4.4%) with spinal injury and 3 cases with abdominal injury were the leading causes of death. Among head injury, SDH was found to be the most common cause of death followed by ICH. Among abdominal injuries, hollow viscus perforation was found to be major cause of death.

NUMBER OF CASES

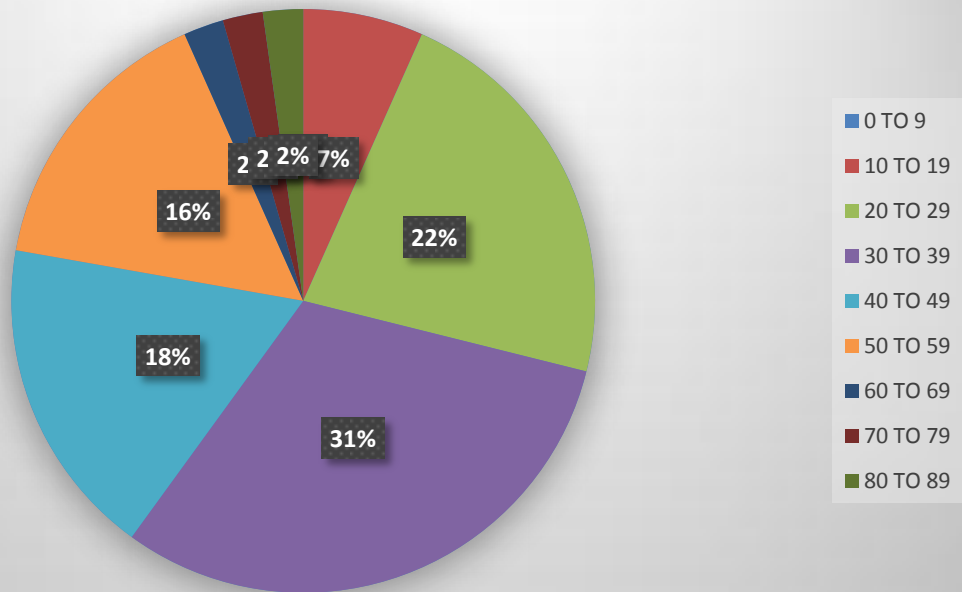


NUMBER OF CASES

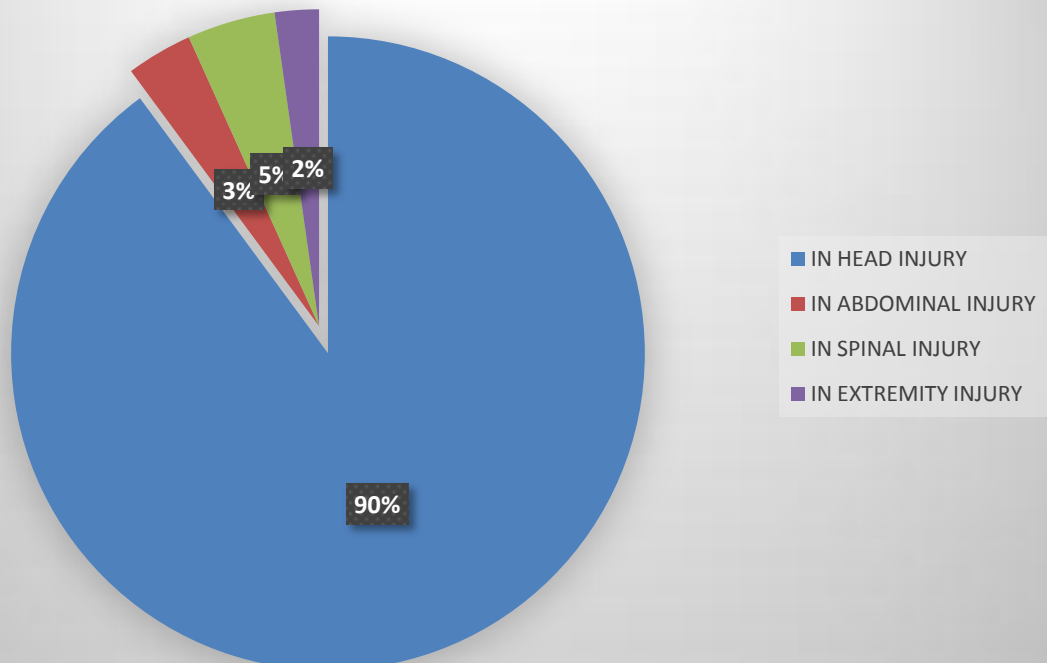


	ADMITTED	EXPIRED	PERCENTAGE
MALE	582	73	12.54%
FEMALE	134	16	11.9%
TOTAL	716	89	12.4%

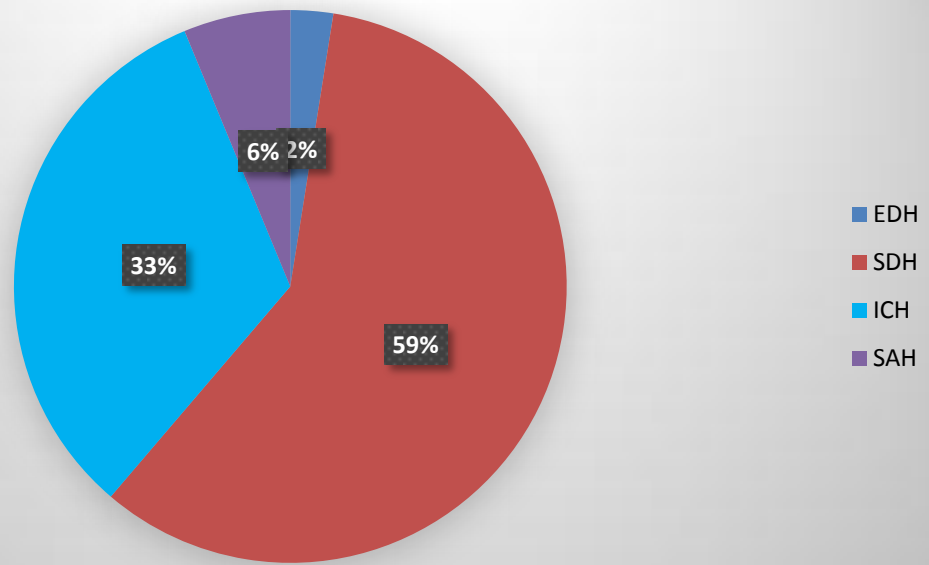
AGE DISTRIBUTION



DEATHS



DEATHS IN HEAD INJURY



DISCUSSION

MVAs constitute a major public health problem in all over the world. In this review, the majority of MVA victims were young in their most reproductive and productive years and showed a male preponderance.

The reason for high incidence of MVAs in males reflects their high activity levels and participation in high-risk activities such as recklessness driving/riding, over-speeding and drunken driving without wearing any protective gears. It is due to greater male exposure on streets. On the contrary, females are involved in various indoor activities mostly due to cultural background and extra precaution taken by family members to keep them safe.

Our study revealed peak age group between 30-39 years of age with mean at 30.91 years when compared with few other studies from countries like Iran, Nepal and Nigeria observed that the peak age of male victims was in the 4th decade, with the mean at 33 years.

There was a higher rate of head injuries in our study. Next common site of injury was the extremities.

Among fractures, our study found that the commonest site of fracture was the lower limb 177 (42.1%). The more fractures on lower extremity is again due to interaction of gravitational force and velocity of the vehicle at the time of accidents.

But in a study by Sathiyasekaran BWC, it was reported that the highest number of fractures was in upper limbs followed by lower limbs and facial bones. In contrast, result of study conducted by Gururaj G et al in NIMHANS showed that the commonest injury was fracture of bones particularly of the head and face and closely followed by the lower extremity.

Multiple studies revealed that solid organs were involved commonly in abdominal trauma particularly spleen and liver. But in our study hollow viscus injury was as common as solid visceral injury. Among hollow viscus, small bowel was commonly injured than large bowel. Further studies revealed that among facial trauma, mandible was involved commonly in contrary to our study which showed more maxillary fractures.

Our study confirms the finding of other studies that traumatic brain injuries and orthopaedic injuries constitute a majority of injured admitted to trauma centres. Traumatic brain injury is known to have poor long-term outcome in terms of mortality as well as morbidity.

CONCLUSION

The following were the conclusions of this study –

- Improving emergency medical services may prevent untimely deaths and disabilities caused by MVAs.
- Alcohol intake proves to be an important risk factor in cases of MVAs.
- The most common age group was found to be 30-39 years, especially males.
- Head injuries were the most common injuries in MVAs.
- Head injury was the major cause of death in motor vehicle accidents.
- Death was more common among males, especially belonging to age group 30-39 years.
- MVAs continue to be an increasing trend as one of the major preventable causes of death.

ABBREVIATIONS

ATLS – Advanced Trauma Life Support

CT – Computed Tomography

DAI – Diffuse Axonal Injury

DPA – Diagnostic Peritoneal Aspirate

DPL – Diagnostic Peritoneal Lavage

ECG - Electrocardiogram

EDH – Extradural Haemorrhage

FAST – Focussed Assessment with sonogram for trauma

GCS – Glasgow Coma Score

HPTX – Hemopneumothorax Thorax

HTX - Haemothorax

ICD – Intercostal Drainage

ICH – Intracerebral Haemorrhage

ICP – Intracranial Pressure

ICU – Intense Care Unit

IVP – Intravenous Pyelogram

MLC – Medico Legal Case

MMF – Maxillo-Mandibular Fixation

MRI - Magnetic Resonance Imaging

MVA – Motor Vehicle Accident

NOM – Non-Operative Management

PTX - Pneumothorax

MVA – Road Traffic Accident

SAH - Subarachnoid Haemorrhage

SBP – Systolic Blood Pressure

SDH – Subdural Haemorrhage

TBI – Traumatic Brain Injury

TMJ – Temporo-Mandibular Joint

USG - Ultra sonogram

WHO – World Health Organisation

ZMC – Zygomatico-Maxillary Complex

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S.NO	PATIENT NAME	AGE/SEX	IP. NO.	MODE	ALCOHOL	HEAD INJURY	TORSO INJURY	FACIAL INJURY	EXTREMITY INJURY	SPINAL INJURY	TREATMENT	OUTCOME
1	Balamurugan	38/M	11	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
2	Yesuraj	26/M	19	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
3	Prabakaran	32/M	23	2	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	1
4	Prithviraj	26/M	39	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Krishnamoorthy	42/M	121	3	0	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
6	Ravichandran	45/M	123	3	1	0	A2	0	0	0	0	0
7	Diwakaran	34/M	124	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
8	Samiayya	24/M	128	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
9	Mahalingam	34/M	150	5	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
10	Thennarasan	23/M	179	4	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
11	Mahaboob Baasha	29/M	192	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
12	Roopa	44/F	225	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
13	Udhayakumar	47/M	229	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
14	Gunaseelan	34/M	234	3	1	0	A2	0	0	0	0	0
15	Rajan	39/M	245	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	Gokul	24/M	286	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
17	Vellaisamy	55/M	345	3	1	4		0	0	0	0	1
18	Sudhagar	24/M	409	4	1	1		0	0	0	0	0
19	Gopinathan	32/M	456	2	1	4		0	0	0	0	1
20	Thirumoorthy	39/M	467	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
21	Kesavan	60/M	495	3	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
22	Thirumaiyan	27/M	498	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
23	Jaya	42/F	503	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
24	Sakthivel	19/M	567	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
25	Sivaji	36/M	580	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
26	Sankaralingam	15/M	623	2	0	1		0	0	0	0	0
27	Kumarasamy	60/M	678	3	0	4		0	0	0	0	1
28	Chinnaiyan	60/M	687	3	1	0		C2	0	0	1	0
29	Janaki	18/F	689	3	0	1		0	0	0	0	0
30	Vasanth	24/M	701	4	1	1		0	0	0	0	0
31	Evangeline	43/F	709	2	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0

32	Selvendiran	20/M	728	5	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
33	Karthik	24/M	731	4	1	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
34	Saradha	50/F	738	3	0	0	C3#	0	0	0	1	0
34	Prasanth	28/M	63790	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
35	Kalyanarasu	45/M	789	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
36	Thiyagarajan	38/M	799	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
37	Ragav	29/M	812	1	1	1	0	6	0	0	0	0
38	Kannagi	32/F	879	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
39	Lakshmanan	41/M	890	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
40	Manjula	32/F	901	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
41	Sulochana	35/F	901	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
42	Senthilnathan	12/M	967	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
43	Ragul	23/M	1008	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
44	Kaliyamoorthy	70/M	1035	2	0	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
45	Muniappan	38/M	1092	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
46	Pattammal	32/F	1109	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
47	Siva	17/M	1123	3	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
48	Narayanasamy	33/M	1134	2	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
49	Palani murugan	17/M	1164	4	0	0	A2	0	0	0	1	0
50	Sumithra	40/F	1167	3	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
51	Mala	24/F	1253	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
52	Suthanraj	29/M	1254	5	1	0	A3	0	0	0	1	0
53	Sundar	22/M	1278	4	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
54	Madhavan	33/M	1289	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	1
55	Kalyani	74/F	1307	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
56	Duraiseelan	22/M	1349	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
57	Roopa	28/F	1350	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
58	Govindaraj	32/M	1352	3	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
59	Umadevi	55/F	1381	4	1	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
60	Chinnadurai	18/M	1394	3	1	0	A2	0	0	0	1	0
61	Bakkiaraj	34/M	1398	2	1	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
62	Muniyappan	80/M	1412	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
63	Mala	23/F	1440	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
64	Arumugam	37/M	1489	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

65	Sivanadiyan	11/M	1498	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
66	Rahmathulla	25/M	1678	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
67	DHANABAKIYAM	55/F	1690	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
68	Adaikalam	37/M	1705	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
69	Radhakrishnan	35/M	1745	1	1	1	0	3	0	0	0	0
70	Vasantha	55/F	1820	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
71	Mariyammal	34/F	1835	4	1	0	A2	0	0	0	1	0
72	Kasim	50/M	66726	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	1
72	Kandhan	33/M	1843	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
73	Anusuya	72/F	1890	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
74	Mohamed Jefri	36/M	1901	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
75	Samuthiraraj	24/M	1990	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
76	Mangalam	63/F	1997	1	1	0	C2#	0	0	0	1	0
77	Uthirapathi	39/M	2037	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
78	Sagithyan	74/M	2089	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
79	Viswanathan	74/M	2227	3	0	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
80	Pandiselvi	23/F	2260	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
81	Jenita Mary	5/F	2279	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
82	Nagarajan	75/M	2290	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
83	Jothivel	35/M	2310	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
84	Jayaraman	23/M	2312	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
85	Vignesh	25/M	2390	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
86	Thangaraj	35/M	2406	2	1	0	C2#	0	0	0	1	0
87	Podhuvudamai	15/M	2407	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
88	Santhi	33/F	2411	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
89	Murugan	31/M	2413	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
90	Sundaralingam	38/M	2489	3	1	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
91	Arumugam	30/M	2512	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
92	Mohan doss	21/M	2515	4	0	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
93	Raja	24/M	2530	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
94	Marimuthu	33/M	2548	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
95	Chandrasekar	50/M	2556	1	1	0	C3#	0	0	0	1	0
96	Muthumani	11/M	2590	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
97	Prabhu	26/M	2643	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
98	Sridaran	17/M	2689	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
99	Baskar	11/M	2801	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

100	Jeeva	44/F	2879	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
101	Sathyaprakash	26/M	2897	4	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
102	Mudiyappan	38/M	2956	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
103	Ragupathy	31/M	3045	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
104	Mahadevan	38/M	3080	4	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
105	Subramani	65/M	3096	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
106	Swaminathan	14/M	3097	5	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
107	Muthusamy	32/M	3189	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
108	Sebastian	30/M	3229	4	0	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
109	Sethu	11/M	3270	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
110	Gunasundari	38/F	3312	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
111	Moorthy	44/M	3401	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
112	Muruganandham	31/M	3409	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
113	Kathir	19/M	3472	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
114	Jayalakshmi	48/F	3477	2	1	0	C2#	0	0	0	1	0
115	Kalyanarasu	45/M	3480	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
116	Murugan	28/M	3499	4	1	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
117	Naganthan	25/M	3512	5	1	0	A3	0	0	0	1	0
118	Arul	25/M	3543	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
119	Ranjith	18/M	3548	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
120	Thirunavukkarasu	21/M	3554	2	1	0	C2#	0	0	0	1	0
121	Selvaraj	56/M	3735	2	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
122	Ragavan	48/M	3878	4	0	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
123	Arputharaj	75/M	3916	3	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0
124	Abdul rashid	20/M	3926	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
125	Kumaran	23/M	4097	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
126	Prabhu	60/M	4230	4	1	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
127	Lakshmanan	19/M	4312	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
128	Radhika	38/F	4395	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
129	Ponnusamy	18/M	4509	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
130	Selvam	33/M	4562	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
131	Ramakrishnan	26/M	4567	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
132	Ramarajan	36/M	4590	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

133	Marimuthu	27/M	4792	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
134	Savitha	28/F	4806	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
135	Ramarajan	36/M	4980	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
136	Murugan	45/M	5036	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
137	Thangarasu	50/M	5063	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
138	Prem	38/M	5079	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
139	Ramya	36/F	5178	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
140	Jayaraman	23/M	5301	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
141	Palanivel	27/M	5347	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
142	Rasheed	20/M	5497	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
143	Praveen	23/M	5536	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
144	Mala	24/F	5584	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
145	Vijaya	41/F	5612	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
146	Savitha	28/F	5643	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
147	Nagoor Kani	14/M	5690	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	1
148	Taswin	24/M	5698	1	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
149	Uma Devi	65/F	5714	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
150	Meena	29/F	5731	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
151	Kalyanarasu	45/M	5736	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
152	Gomathi	37/F	5782	4	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
153	Priya	28/F	5783	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
154	Mahesh	24/M	5861	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
155	Poongundran	17/M	5978	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
156	Lakshmanan	19/M	5980	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
157	Hemnath	21/M	6012	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
158	Murugaiyan	30/M	6175	5	1	2	0	4	0	0	1	0
159	Sulaiman	36/M	6193	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
160	Gokul	43/M	6200	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
161	Gunasekaran	40/M	6256	4	1	0	A2	2	0	0	0	0
162	Sushil Kumar	28/M	6378	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
163	Sulochana	11/F	6472	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
164	Mahendran	29/M	6590	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
165	Sakthi kumar	16/M	6677	2	0	0	A3	0	0	0	1	0
166	Kathamuthu	28/M	6713	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
167	Shanmugam	65/M	6764	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
168	Saravanel	60/M	6816	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
169	Santhanam	39/M	6901	4	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
170	Diwakaran	34/M	6920	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
171	Somasundaram	33/M	6987	1	1	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
172	Meena	29/F	7045	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
173	Vennila	55/F	7093	3	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
174	Jeevanandham	33/M	7097	5	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0

175	Dominik	30/M	7099	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
176	Paneer selvam	60/M	7120	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
177	Jinna mohamed	40/M	7150	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
178	Anbu	17/M	7190	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
179	Praveen	35/M	7209	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
180	Jayabal	36/M	7380	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
181	Prasanth	19/M	7516	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
182	Mahalingam	27/M	7598	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
183	Arumugam	37/M	7690	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
184	Prasanna	18/M	7745	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
185	Pradeep kumar	19/M	7750	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
186	Roopa	44/F	7819	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
187	Arul mozhi	24/M	7916	4	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
188	Kumar	54/M	7946	3	0	0	C1#	0	0	0	1	0
189	Ramesh	32/M	7978	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
190	Chinnadurai	37/M	8045	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
191	Rengaraj	25/M	8127	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
192	Mythili	33/F	8382	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
193	Thennarasu	36/M	8417	3	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
194	Mahaboob Baasha	29/M	8457	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
195	Selvakumar	32/M	8527	5	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	1
196	Kulanchinathan	32/M	8569	2	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
197	Rajendran	52/M	8656	2	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
198	Ranjitha	37/F	8672	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
199	Santhosh	37/M	8764	4	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
200	Vijaya	38/F	8897	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
201	Subramaniyam	48/M	8904	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
202	Subramani	48/M	8951	4	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
203	Ranganathan	60/M	8967	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
204	Laxmanan	31/M	8996	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
205	Ramakrishnan	21/M	9023	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
206	Somu	50/M	9024	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
207	Subbu	55/M	9026	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
208	Veeramani	25/M	9027	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
209	Santhana krishnan	35/M	9048	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	1
210	Manohar	46/M	9087	3	1	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
211	Girivendhan	32/M	9109	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
212	Veeranathan	29/M	9127	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
213	Selvam	45/M	9290	4	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	1
214	Vignesh	11/M	9306	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
215	Muthulakshmi	60/F	9345	2	0	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
216	Roshan	27/M	9573	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
217	Anjammal	41/F	9724	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
218	Ali akbar	60/M	9797	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
219	Manoj	12/M	9881	2	0	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
220	Ramya	36/F	9956	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
221	Ranjitha	22/F	9987	4	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
222	Selvam	33/M	9999	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
223	Neelavathi	70/F	10090	1	1	0	C1#	0	0	0	0	0
224	Elangovan	54/M	10115	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
225	Marudhamuthu	28/M	10160	1	1	0	A2	2	0	0	1	0
226	sithamma	63/F	10288	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	1
227	Thangam	37/M	10289	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0

228	Kumar	45/M	10528	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
229	Muthaiyan	22/M	10590	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
230	Karuppaiyan	28/M	10671	1	1	0	C3#	0	0	0	1	0
231	Annadurai	50/M	10695	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
232	Arumugam	52/M	10701	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	1
233	Marystella	23/M	10724	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
234	Rajasekar	24/M	10851	4	0	0	A2	0	0	0	1	0
235	Rajan	27/M	10901	5	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
236	Shanmuganathan	34/M	10963	4	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
237	Lakshmi	28/F	10968	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
238	Rathinasamy	25/M	11098	4	1	5	C1#	0	0	0	1	1
239	THANGAPPA	26/M	11108	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
240	Sabapathy	48/M	11234	4	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
241	Kaliyamoorthy	29/M	11280	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
242	PARTHIBAN	21/M	11380	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
243	Vengatesh	57/M	11432	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
244	Anand raj	31/M	11576	2	1	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
245	MEENA	30/F	11579	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
246	Ravichandran	42/M	11694	3	0	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
247	KAVERI	55/F	11700	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
248	Arokyababu	30/M	11796	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
249	VASUDEVAN	50/M	11879	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
250	JEYARAMAN	30/M	11970	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
251	JEYARAMAN	30/M	11989	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
252	Suresh	35/M	12019	4	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
253	Manimegalai	50/F	12147	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
254	Kanagaraj	35/M	12166	2	1	0	A3	0	0	0	1	0
255	KATHIRVEL	67/M	12189	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
256	Sowmiya	15/F	12218	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
257	Gokulakrishnan	25/M	12239	3	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
258	Sekar	55/M	12318	3	0	0	C3#	0	0	0	1	0
259	SUMATHY	15/F	12390	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
260	MEENA	18/F	12497	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
261	Selvaraj	45/M	12602	3	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
262	Vellaiyammal	76/F	12615	5	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
263	Julius caesar	46/M	12617	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
265	Govindaraj	35/M	12625	5	1	0	C3	0	0	0	1	0
266	Suppan	65/M	12634	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
267	Cluny	8/M	12689	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
268	VEERAIYAN	53/M	12697	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
269	KATHIRVEL	52/M	12700	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
270	Indra	48/M	12806	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
271	SIVASUBRAMANIYAN	52/M	12849	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
272	MANIKANDAN	25/M	12909	3	1	0	0	6	0	0	1	0
273	Senthil	23/M	12916	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
274	BALRAJ	44/M	13102	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
275	Subramaniyan	32/M	13191	3	0	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
276	KANNAIYAN	52/M	13208	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
277	Vishnu	15/M	13312	3	0	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
278	Kumaran	30/M	13330	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
279	Valagan	20/M	13339	3	0	0	A1	0	0	0	1	0
280	SHANKAR	40/M	13378	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
281	Vinoth raj	34/M	13385	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1

282	Valarmathi	55/F	13419	3	1	0	C1#	0	0	0	1	0
283	Anbu	28/M	13449	3	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
284	Kattayappan	60/M	13459	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
285	SHARMILA	20/F	13468	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
286	Dhanbal	62/M	13480	3	0	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
287	John badshah	34/M	13540	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
288	RAJINIKANTH	39/M	13580	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
289	Joseph	39/M	13626	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
290	SELVAKUMAR	32/M	13678	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
291	Chinnaiyan	34/M	13728	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
292	Jayachitra	19/F	13796	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
293	RAJINI	33/M	13804	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
294	BABY	30/F	13898	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
295	Kaanthan	56/M	13909	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
296	VENKATESAN	40/M	13978	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
297	Sundarakumaran	50/M	13980	3	1	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
298	Rathinam	28/M	14003	4	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
299	Pattumani	52/F	14018	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
301	SENTHAMIL SELVI	13/F	14064	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
302	MANIKANDAN	17/M	14180	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
303	Anthonisamy	24/M	14245	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
304	SARAVANAN	46/M	14298	4	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
305	Kalaivanan	43/M	14322	1	1	0	A3	0	0	0	1	0
306	Baskaran	50/M	14390	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
307	SELVARAJ	45/M	14397	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
308	Hari krishnan	62/M	14415	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
309	VEERAPPAN	55/M	14535	4	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
310	NANDHA KUMAR	45/M	14719	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
311	Parimala	47/F	14892	1	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
312	MANIKANDAN	17/M	14905	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
313	Veeramuthu	37/M	14907	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
314	Kalimuthu	45/M	14934	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
315	CHANDRASEKAR	32/M	15007	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
316	Kaliyamoorthy	49/M	15016	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
317	Saravanan	35/M	15103	4	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
318	Siva	22/M	15124	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
319	Ramasamy	59/M	15131	2	1	0	C1#	0	0	0	1	0
320	Ganesan	70/M	15172	1	0	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
321	Ravi	40/M	15193	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
322	KURALENTHI	53/M	15208	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
323	SOUNDAR RAJAN	45/M	15379	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
324	TAMILARASI	55/F	15468	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
325	Chaya	31/F	15478	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
326	RAMADOSS	42/M	15534	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
327	ILAYARAJA	20/M	15689	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
328	MANI	17/M	15770	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
329	SUNDARAMOORTHY	32/M	15904	5	1	0	0	3	0	0	1	0
330	SATHYNATHAN	55/M	16012	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
331	VEERAMUTHU	35/M	16146	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
332	KALIYAMOORTHY	60/M	16278	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
333	Mohammed ali	60/M	16347	2	1	0	C1#	0	0	0	1	0
334	KUMAR	56/M	16400	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
335	HARIBASKER	47/M	16524	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

336	Kaarthik	26/M	16534	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
337	SEETHA	13/F	16658	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
338	Ramachandran	40/M	16693	2	1	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
339	Krishnaveni	45/F	16749	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
340	Kariappa	39/M	16823	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
341	Narayanan	16/M	16890	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
342	Achiyammal	24/F	16924	1	1	0	C1#	0	0	0	0	0
343	Joseph	33/M	17590	3	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
344	Jayabal	27/M	17880	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
345	Roshan	8/M	18056	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
346	Govindhan	29/M	18309	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
347	Babu	25/M	19087	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
348	Gowtham	32/M	19374	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
349	Vimalsan	27/M	20067	5	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
350	Mohan	36/M	20147	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
351	Thamayendiran	26/M	21497	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
352	Balaraman	39/M	21789	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
353	Vinodhini	31/F	22409	5	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
354	Dakshinamoorthy	27/M	22890	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
355	Lavanyan	39/M	23107	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
356	Vijayakanth	36/M	23456	5	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
357	Chinnathambi	22/M	23907	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
358	Poornachittan	14/M	23908	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
359	Selvakannan	44/M	23978	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
360	Nithyanandham	24/M	24123	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
361	Gnanasekaran	38/M	24965	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
362	Narayanasamy	39/M	25234	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
363	Ponnambalam	39/M	25786	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
364	Cholanaattan	81/M	26345	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
365	Namachivayam	21/M	26564	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
366	Loganathan	31/M	27098	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
367	Krishnan	34/M	27645	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
368	Palraj	22/M	28425	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
369	Malini	29/F	28756	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
370	Tamilarasan	22/M	29143	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
371	Surya	14/M	29768	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
372	Vignesh	24/M	30123	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
373	Pandiyam	32/M	30697	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
374	Lakshmi	50/F	31235	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
375	Iruthayaraj	21/M	31600	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
376	Rashmi	19/F	32346	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
377	Rangasamy	33/M	32758	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
378	Gangeswaran	34/M	33058	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
379	Sindhuja	34/F	33567	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
380	Palraj	57/M	34123	5	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
381	Ganapathy	36/M	34709	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
382	Mary	45/F	35423	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
383	Sankar	38/M	35803	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
384	Radha	33/F	36425	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
385	Uma	15/F	36978	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
386	Gopal	29/M	37124	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
387	Sudha	25/F	37524	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
388	Rajakumari	23/F	38154	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

389	Netaji	47/M	38745	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
390	Kubendiran	32/M	39203	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
391	Kaliyamoorthy	44/M	39865	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
392	Aalavandhan	31/M	40012	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
393	Perumalsami	38/M	40078	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
394	Mohamed Hussain	33/M	40570	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
395	Sundaramoorthy	33/M	41018	4	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
396	Ganesalingam	22/M	41089	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
397	Maran	34/M	41509	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
398	Aravind kumar	30/M	42002	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
399	Ganesamoorthy	33/M	42207	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
400	Gnanaraj	35/M	42709	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	
401	Balaji	28/M	43009	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	
402	Chidambaram	28/M	43209	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	
403	Jagan	10/M	43300	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	
404	Mohanakannan	41/M	44211	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	
405	Periyathambi	27/M	44479	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	
406	Chellasundaram	38/M	44536	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	
407	Kalaiarasi	31/F	45134	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
408	Manikandan	34/M	45201	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
409	Murugasen	40/M	45786	3	1	1	0	6	0	0	0	0
410	Saminathan	26/M	46134	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
411	Dilip	13/M	46145	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
412	Guru	22/M	46347	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
413	John	13/F	47145	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
414	Parthiban	22/M	47456	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
415	Lokesh	7/M	47572	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
416	Kumar	31/M	48357	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
417	Rajeswari	31/F	48456	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
418	Valarmathi	39/F	48794	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
419	Dileeban	32/M	49135	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
420	Jayagopal	62/M	49224	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
421	Muthu	17/M	49357	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
422	Chinnammal	70/F	49897	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
423	Manivannan	18/M	50033	3	0	0	A2	0	0	0	1	1
424	Lakshmanan	22/M	50078	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
425	Gunavathi	17/F	50135	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
426	Iyappan	23/M	50247	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
427	Appadurai	35/M	50509	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
428	Gokul	43/M	50934	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
429	Govindaraj	35/M	50971	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
430	Asokan	35/M	50983	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
431	Selva	25/M	50987	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
432	Sala	11/F	51021	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
433	Madhan	29/M	51098	4	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
434	Santhanagopalan	13/M	51246	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
435	Samidurai	33/M	51469	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
436	Renganathan	45/M	51516	4	0	0	A2	0	0	0	1	0
437	Balasubramaniyam	33/M	51570	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
438	Gowri Sankar	36/M	51589	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
439	Asha Begam	16/F	52136	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
440	Gopalan	60/M	52346	3	1	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
441	Rizwan	12/M	52468	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

442	Ramesh	35/M	52651	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
443	Akash	37/M	52809	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
444	Sudhakaran	43/M	52890	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
445	Kathamuthu	28/M	52897	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
446	Adishesan	54/M	52987	3	0	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
447	Alexander	28/M	52998	2	1	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
448	Munivendhan	24/M	53135	3	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
449	Narasimman	45/M	53147	1	1	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
450	Thangapandi	30/M	53150	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
451	Sundaravel	34/M	53658	5	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
452	Dhanalakshmi	31/F	53735	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
453	Vaiyapuri	33/M	53786	5	1	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
454	Sansudeen	47/M	53879	5	0	0	C2	0	0	0	0	0
455	Selvaraj	14/M	54135	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
456	Senthil kumar	30/M	54475	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
457	Karthikeyan	52/M	54481	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
458	Devanathan	23/M	54545	2	0	0	C1	0	0	0	0	0
459	Jaisankar	25/M	54580	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
460	Sairam	35/M	54781	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
461	Moorthy	59/M	55116	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
462	Azhagappan	25/M	55179	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
463	Balaiyan	29/M	55182	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
464	Harish	17/M	55512	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
465	Dharmaraj	35/M	55730	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
466	Ramalingam	39/M	55733	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
467	Kanagambal	46/F	55780	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
468	Mathiyazahagan	40/M	55808	2	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
469	Mahendran	29/M	55813	3	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
470	Selvaraj	55/M	55900	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
471	Malaiyappan	15/M	56135	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
472	Suresh	27/M	56220	4	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
473	Jayakumar	37/M	56247	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
474	Sudhakar	31/M	56405	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
475	Baskar	40/M	56413	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
476	Harish	21/M	56451	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
477	Arvind	39/M	56487	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
478	Mahendiran	25/M	56530	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
479	Palanisamy	24/M	56632	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
480	Abdul lathif	41/M	56912	3	0	0	C3	0	0	0	0	0
481	Muthu	43/M	56930	3	1	0	A1	0	0	0	1	1
482	KALIMUTHU	38/M	57039	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
483	Stalin manivannan	31/M	57179	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
484	Gunasekaran	22/M	57188	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
485	Ramachandran	40/M	57191	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
486	MASTHAN	62/M	57199	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
487	Muthusamy	37/M	57234	2	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
488	Gunavathi	22/F	57246	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
489	Praveen	35/M	57289	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
490	MANIKANDAN	34/M	57290	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
491	Kalavathy	42/F	57362	2	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
492	Lourthu Samy	65/M	57412	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
493	Madhavan	24/M	57423	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
494	Shakila	33/F	57469	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

495	Sheik Ibrahim	53/M	57524	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
496	Ganesan	62/M	57582	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
497	DHAMAYANTHI	50/F	57597	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	1
498	Sivakumar	35/M	57657	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
499	Krishnan	55/M	57758	1	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
500	Yogesh	32/M	57786	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
502	Sathish	31/M	57798	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
503	Muthu	58/M	57899	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
504	Surendar	10/M	57967	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
505	Rajan	32/M	57987	3	1	3	C2	0	0	0	1	0
506	Ragavan	33/M	57999	4	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
507	Veeramani	35/M	58014	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
508	Umar	14/M	58035	3	0	2	0	6	0	0	1	0
509	Rajendran	41/M	58145	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
510	Arokiya Raj	42/M	58278	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
511	Veeramani	39/M	58345	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
512	Kamala	30/F	58438	2	0	0	A2	0	1	0	1	0
513	Muniayyan	31/M	58468	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
514	Karthick	24/M	58479	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
515	Madhu	41/F	58524	4	1	2	0	5	0	0	1	0
516	Asrafali	32/M	58590	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
517	Anbalagan	35/M	58701	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
518	Rajalakshmi	12/F	58749	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
519	Sangeetha	18/F	58789	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
520	Ayisha Banu	21/F	58910	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
521	JAMMILAMMAL	53/F	58990	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
522	Abirami	11/F	58999	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
523	Bharathi	63/M	59012	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
524	Kalyana Sundaram	48/M	59178	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
525	Prabhu	35/M	59209	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
526	Karuppaiya	35/M	59257	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
527	Arumugam	23/M	59269	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
528	Ramachandran	66/M	59309	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
529	Karunanidhi	49/M	59349	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
530	Mani	45/M	59402	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
531	Mariya Francis	49/M	59423	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
532	Prakash	24/M	59574	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
533	Sethuraman	35/M	59634	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
534	Marimuthu	60/M	59801	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
535	Rajendran	46/M	59808	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
536	Vaithiyalingam	12/M	59809	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
537	Nagaraj	39/M	59810	3	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
538	Diwakaran	34/M	59835	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
539	Srinivasan	42/M	59859	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
540	Ramachandran	45/M	59935	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
541	Arumugam	32/M	60009	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
542	Sasikumar	33/M	60013	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
543	Ramamoorthy	45/M	60109	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
544	Mathialagu	40/M	60234	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
545	Anjalai	26/F	60254	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
546	Vijayan	34/M	60297	1	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
547	Sekar	45/M	60325	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
548	Urumaiya	22/M	60456	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

549	Krishnamoorthy	40/M	60475	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
550	Bakkiaraj	26/M	60508	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
551	Selvaraj	30/M	60512	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
552	Ramachandran	27/M	60635	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
553	Vanitha	30/F	60687	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
554	Govindaraj	60/M	60700	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
555	Prabu	26/M	60747	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
556	Kalyanasundaram	40/M	60856	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
557	Mahalingam	27/M	60914	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
558	Saminathan	28/M	60934	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
559	Murali	18/M	60956	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
560	Pitchai pillai	26/M	60957	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
561	Selvam	35/M	60978	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
562	Jayaraman	34/M	60986	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
563	Arulanandan	55/M	61000	1	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
564	Jebastin	21/M	61012	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
565	Tamilsevam	30/M	61022	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
566	Manmadhan	55/M	61046	3	1	4	0	3	0	0	1	0
567	SAVEETHA	26/F	61059	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	1
568	Govindaraj	40/M	61078	3	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
569	Jayabal	36/M	61079	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
570	Williams	9/M	61134	5	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
571	Sathish	26/M	61215	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
572	Surdhan	28/M	61229	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
573	Sendhamilan	33/M	61256	2	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
574	Rajendran	55/M	61298	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
575	Thangarasu	18/M	61345	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
576	Kandavel	33/M	61380	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
577	Rubini	32/F	61432	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
578	Manikkavel	24/M	61476	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
579	Vimala	41/F	61500	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
580	Kaliyamoorthy	34/M	61512	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
581	Arun	23/M	61568	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
582	Sendrayan	44/M	61600	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
583	Aadhil	23/M	61646	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
584	Jeevanandham	34/M	61655	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
585	Chandrasekaran	48/M	61689	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
586	Yesuraj	24/M	61705	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
587	Kalimuthu	36/M	61708	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
588	Seethalakshmi	58/F	61750	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
589	Gandhimathi	40/F	61787	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
590	Ramamoorthy	34/M	61798	2	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	0
591	Gopi	35/M	61804	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
592	Kaliyaperumal	31/M	61880	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
593	George	23/M	61968	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
594	Samuthiram	53/F	62023	5	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
595	Aravindan	46/M	62067	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
596	Boomika	35/F	62107	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
597	Doss	27/M	62134	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
598	Sriram	26/M	62180	4	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
599	Vanitha	36/F	62223	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
600	Kadhiravan	32/M	62256	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
601	Sathyaseelan	33/M	62289	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

602	Manogaran	45/M	62378	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
603	Anto	34/M	62403	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
604	Soundaryam	35/M	62478	4	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
605	Ramadoss	36/M	62515	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
606	Kabeerdas	38/M	62589	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
607	Chellapa	43/M	62625	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
608	Thapasu	20/M	62654	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
609	Sumathy	43/F	62658	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
610	Kamalappan	24/M	62715	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
611	Manimaegalai	55/F	62782	5	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
612	Adaikkalasamy	39/M	62798	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
613	Marimuthu	31/M	62846	3	1	0	0	6	0	0	1	0
614	Anbazhagan	23/M	62890	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
615	Kandaswamy	32/M	62936	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
616	Periyathambi	25/M	62989	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
617	Govindasamy	67/M	63009	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
618	Rani	55/F	63056	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1
619	Subramaniyan	47/M	63063	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
620	Praveena	37/F	63079	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0
621	Chandran	29/M	63156	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
622	Mayuranathan	42/M	63214	2	1	2	0	5	0	0	1	0
623	Soundaravalli	31/F	63264	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
624	Parameswaran	72/M	63279	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
625	Nandan	35/M	63370	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
626	Seethai	55/F	63410	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	1
627	Vignesh	36/M	63480	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
628	Alex	37/M	63536	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
629	Vadivel	30/M	63581	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
630	Amudha	38/F	63658	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
631	Sakkarai	38/M	63690	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
632	Dhruvidan	28/M	63729	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
635	Krishnamoorthy	31/M	63798	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
636	Karunanidhi	32/M	63860	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
637	Rani	31/F	63913	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
638	Anandhan	25/M	63985	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
639	Velladurai	33/M	64004	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
640	Abdul	48/M	64069	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
641	Manikandan	21/M	64097	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
642	Muthulakshmi	18/F	64113	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
643	Kaliyaperumal	37/M	64135	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
644	Sekar	35/M	64189	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
645	Sarojini	27/F	64211	5	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
646	Jayakodi	48/F	64234	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
647	Valarmathi	11/F	64235	4	0	0	0	6	1	0	1	0
648	Arul kumar	24/M	64250	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
649	Saravanan	36/M	64280	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
650	Jayaseelan	26/M	64379	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
651	Venkatesan	37/M	64390	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
652	Karthik	24/M	64427	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
653	Praveen	19/M	64456	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
654	Devi	32/F	64479	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
655	Durairaj	55/M	64480	2	1	0	C2	0	0	0	1	0
656	Chinnadurai	31/M	64489	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0

657	Meena	21/F	64501	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
658	Balaiyah	60/M	64507	5	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
659	Pandiyarajan	24/M	64514	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
660	Samuel	38/M	64589	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
661	Anuradha	34/F	64596	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
662	Jacquelin	42/F	64609	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	1
663	Rowther Kani	48/M	64679	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
664	Anbarasan	34/M	64745	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
665	Kumbiduren Samy	25/M	64790	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
666	Thyagarajan	40/M	64795	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
667	Kathamuthu	48/M	64815	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
668	Shafiulla	29/M	64816	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
669	Pandi	28/M	64869	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
670	Sundeeep	34/M	64921	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
671	Shamsudeen	36/M	64934	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
672	Saminathan	42/M	64952	1	1	3	0	4	0	0	1	0
673	Mahendran	46/M	64986	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
674	Malarmannan	37/M	65082	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
675	Thenmozhi	28/F	65180	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
676	Madhubalan	14/M	65210	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
677	Abraham	39/M	65235	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
678	Gerald	31/M	65298	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
679	Kayalvizhi	35/F	65401	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
680	Ganesan	21/M	65479	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
681	Prabhu	22/M	65546	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
682	Vasan	25/M	65568	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
683	Velu	38/M	65608	5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
684	Manoj	19/M	65881	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
685	Ramasamy	22/M	66154	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
686	Lawrence	23/M	66208	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
687	Pugalenthiran	32/M	66294	3	1	3	C1#	2	0	0	1	1
688	Paneer selvam	42/M	66297	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
689	Punniyam	45/M	66299	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
690	Ayyakannu	65/M	66302	1	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	0
691	Chinnadurai	50/M	66304	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
692	Xavier	34/M	66310	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
693	Arumugam	57/M	66340	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
694	Vijaya	38/F	66379	5	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
695	Ranjitha	37/F	66380	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
696	Vimala	55/F	66504	3	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0
697	Roshan	27/M	66612	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
698	Anbazhagan	37/M	66649	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	1
699	Dhatchinamoorthy	29/M	66672	3	1	0	A2	0	0	0	1	1
700	Kaliyaperumal	71/M	66681	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
701	Kattayappan	23/M	66690	3	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
702	Kamali	4/F	63789	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
703	THANIYARASI	50/F	66781	2	0	5	0	3	0	0	0	1
704	Jayapal	50/M	66791	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
705	Rajan	35/M	66880	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
706	Ramakrishnan	21/M	66913	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
707	Mahaboob Baasha	46/M	66977	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
708	Mohan	27/M	67032	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
709	Sundeeep	15/M	67325	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1

710	Vignesh	11/M	67379	5	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
711	Senthil	30/M	67401	2	1	2	0	4	0	0	1	0
712	Rasu	35/M	67464	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1
713	Dharmambal	76/F	67488	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
714	Shanmugam	45/M	67514	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
715	Govindhan	60/M	67556	2	0	3	0	4	0	0	1	0
716	Kanagaraj	60/M	67815	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0

Ped vs 2 W	1	YES - 1	Fracture - 1	Haemothorax - C1	Maxilla - 1	Upper limb - 1	Cervical spine - 1	YES - 1	Survived - 0
Ped vs 4 W	2	NO - 2	EDH - 2	Pneumothorax - C2	Zygoma - 2	Lower limb - 2	Dorsolumbar spine-2	NO -2	Expired - 1
2W vs 2W	3		SDH - 3	Both - C3	Mandible - 3				
2W vs 4W	4		ICH - 4		Nasal bone - 4				
4W vs 4W	5		SAH - 5	Hollow viscus - A1	Orbit - 5				
			DAI - 6	Solid viscus - A2	Tripod - 6				
				Mesentery - A3					